DOCUMENT RESUME

ED 099 956 EA 006 550

TITLE	Organization and Administration of Education. Educational Development Conference: Report of the Working Party (1973-74).
INSTITUTION	Ministry of Education, Wellington (New Zealand).
PUB DATE	74
NOTE	176p.; A related document is EA 006 549
EDRS PRICE	MF-$0.75 HC-$9.00 PLUS POSTAGE
DESCRIPTORS	Adult Education; Change Strategies; *Educational Administration; Educational Assessment; *Educational Change; Educational Finance; Educational Innovation; Educational Planning; Elementary Education; *Governance; Higher Education; *Organizational Change; Preschool Education; Regional Cooperation; *School Community Relationship; Secondary Education; Social Change; State Departments of Education
IDENTIFIERS	New Zealand

ABSTRACT

The organization and articulation of the New Zealand education system, pre-school through higher education, is examined for relevance and for means by which it may be adapted to changing circumstances. The power and function of educational administration is examined for its effectiveness and efficiency. The study recognizes changing social conditions and concludes with extensive, specific recommendations for change in the organization and administration of New Zealand's school system. Supporting data is appended. (Author/DW)

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EDUCATIONAL DEVELOPMENT
CONFERENCE
1973-74

ORGANISATION AND ADMINISTRATION OF EDUCATION

REPORT OF THE
WORKING PARTY ON ORGANISATION
AND ADMINISTRATION

EA 006 550

Wellington 1974

EDUCATIONAL DEVELOPMENT CONFERENCE WORKING PARTY ON ORGANISATION AND ADMINISTRATION

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Mr N. Green (until August 1973).

Ms B. M. B. Bridge (since September 1973).

Conference Executive Officer:

Mr R. A. Scott.

Conference Secretary:

Mr H. J. Needham.

Wellington,
December 1973.

Dear Mr Amos,

I have much pleasure in submitting to you the report from the Educational Development Conference Working Party on Organisation and Administration.

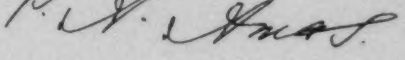
Yours sincerely,

A. H. NORDMEYER,
Chairman.

The Hon. P. A. Amos,
Minister of Education.

FOREWORD

The organisation and administration working party is one of three committees which, during 1973, have examined various fields of education in preparation for the public seminar phase of the Educational Development Conference to be held during the first half of 1974. The other two working parties have reported on aims and objectives and on improving learning and teaching. I should like to express my thanks to the chairman, the Hon. A. H. Nordmeyer and to the members of his working party for the time and effort that have gone into the preparation of this report. My thanks go also to the Advisory Council on Educational Planning, which under the chairmanship of Professor F. W. Holmes, has acted as steering committee for the Conference.



Minister of Education.

CHAIRMAN'S PREFACE

The original terms of reference to the working party were formulated after the Educational Priorities Conference in August 1972. In February 1973 the Minister of Education informed the working party that it should not feel too confined by its original terms of reference if there appeared to be good reasons for going beyond them. The working party has been free, therefore, to study whatever aspects of educational organisation and administration it has felt warranted attention.

Obviously, it has been impossible for every part of the system to have been covered in detail. But the working party has approached its task willingly and enthusiastically. During its year of deliberations it has received submissions, both written and oral, from a very large and wide-ranging number of witnesses. Early on, a questionnaire was sent to all controlling boards and educational associations asking them for their views on the administrative and functional aspects of the education system; in addition, the working party travelled to Auckland, Christchurch, Dunedin, and Invercargill, meeting interested groups, in order to develop a picture of local situations.

I would like to express my personal thanks to all the members of the working party for their contributions and especially Professor R. H. Brookes who played a major part in the preparation of this final report.

TERMS OF REFERENCE

- To examine the organisation and articulation of the education system of New Zealand. To consider its relevance for today and for the future and to consider means by which it may adapt to changing circumstances.

- To study the movement of students into and between different institutions in the education system.

- To examine the administration of education with special reference to the powers and functions of the variety of agencies entrusted with this responsibility; their overall effectiveness and efficiency.

- To recommend desirable changes in organisation and/or administration and to have these costed for consideration among other educational priorities.

- To recommend an order of priority for the areas studied.

CONTENTS

Chapters		Page
1.	BACKGROUND TO THE REPORT ..	11
2.	PRE-SCHOOL EDUCATION	
	2.1 Introduction	16
	2.5 The Training of Pre-school Teachers ..	17
	2.11 Pre-school Programmes	18
	2.13 Children with Special Needs	19
	2.15 The Availability of Pre-school Education ..	20
	2.17 Administrative Consequences	20
	2.22 Future Developments	22
3.	THE SCHOOL SYSTEM	
	3.1 Introduction	26
	3.10 The Present System of School Government ..	28
	3.16 The School Committee and the Board of Governors	30
	3.19 Powers of Appointment	31
	3.23 Other Increased Responsibilities for School Committees	34
	3.25 The School Committee/Board of Governors and the Parent-Teacher Association ..	34
	3.28 The Composition and Election of School Committees	35
	3.33 The Composition of Boards of Governors ..	37
	3.38 Education Boards	38
	3.42 The Composition and Election of Education Boards	39
	3.47 The Powers and Activities of Education Boards	41

Chapters Page

3.48 The Number and Size of Education Board Districts 42
3.55 District Organisation for Secondary Schools .. 44
3.69 Pattern 1: the Unified District Council .. 48
3.72 Pattern 2: the Bipartite District Council .. 49
3.73 Pattern 3: Separate District Authorities .. 50
3.75 Pattern 4: The Education Board as a District Authority 51
3.77 Final Comments on the Alternative Patterns 51
3.80 A Unified Inspectorate 52

4. SECONDARY TO TERTIARY

4.1 Introduction 54
4.2 Nature of Current Problems 54
4.10 Stratified Secondary Schools 57
4.11 Secondary/Tertiary Overlap 57
4.12 The Community College and the Upper School 58
4.16 The Community College and the University .. 60
4.20 The Senior College 62
4.25 Conclusions 64

5. TERTIARY EDUCATION

5.1 Introduction 66
5.5 The Problems of Streaming 67
5.13 Institutional Sensitivity to Social Needs .. 70
5.19 The University System 72
5.22 The University Grants Committee .. 73
5.23 Quinquennial Grants 74
5.26 Block Grants 75
5.28 University Capital Work 76
5.29 University Entrance Requirements .. 76
5.33 University Curriculum Controls 77
5.38 The Technical Institute System 79

Chapters Page

5.40 Technical Institute Autonomy 80
5.49 Control of Technical Curricula 83
5.57 The Quality of Technical Education .. 85
5.63 Regionalisation of Technical Institute Planning and Servicing 86
5.67 The Teachers College System 88
5.69 Teachers College Autonomy 88
5.72 The Scope of Teachers Colleges 89
5.77 University/Technical Institute/Teachers College Relationships 91

6. CONTINUING EDUCATION

6.1 The Present Situation Described 95
6.9 Review of the Present Situation 97
6.13 The Secondary School and the Community School 99
6.26 The Community College 104
6.33 A Possible Strategy for Continuing Education 107
6.47 Continuing Education for Teachers .. 112

7. THE DEPARTMENT OF EDUCATION

7.1 Introduction 115
7.5 Head Office Reorganisation 116
7.10 Problems of Administrative/Professional Blending 118
7.20 Regional Structure 121
7.29 The Inspectorate 124
7.39 Building Programming and Approvals .. 127
7.52 Salary-fixing and Grading Procedures .. 134
7.53 Departmental Research and Planning .. 134
7.62 Extradepartmental Planning and Advisory Bodies 136

8. RECOMMENDATIONS 140

Page

APPENDICES

A. 16–18: The Case for the Senior College (H. Hayden) .. 148

B. A Multi-purpose Teachers College 157

C. The Proposed District, in Diagrams:

1. The Possible Structure of a District Administration .. 164
2. Four Possible Structures of a District Authority .. 165

D. The Head Office Reorganisation Proposed by the Department, in Charts:

1. Professional Directorates, existing 166
2. Professional Directorates, proposed 167
3. Administrative Divisions, existing 168
4. Administrative Divisions, proposed 169

E. Note on Statistics 170

F. Witnesses Heard 172

G. Written Submissions Received 174

Chapter 1 BACKGROUND TO THE REPORT

1.1 Our concern is with the mechanisms of a nationwide enterprise based on a huge capital investment, employing nearly 40,000 full-time and 10,000 part-time professional and administrative workers, having over 10,000 trainees, exceeding $400 million in its annual net costs, providing a market for many ancillary services and industries, and a product for many more. The raw material of its processes is man; its throughput is not far short of one-third of the total population.

1.2 This enterprise, like the society surrounding it, is currently experiencing the pressures of unprecedented and accelerating change, generated by technological innovation and its political, economic, and social concomitants. To what extent education has proved effective either as an agent or as a catalyst of change may well be debatable. It is not our task to debate it. Our role is more pragmatic: to identify those organisational features and administrative practices which no longer serve a useful purpose, to remedy what is ineffectual or inefficient, to recognise strengths where they exist, and to enhance wherever possible the capacity of the system to innovate, to respond to change, and to develop a structure flexible enough to adapt to the needs of a society whose future lifestyle cannot be discerned.

1.3 The other working parties of the Educational Development Conference, whose concerns have been the impact of social change upon the aims and objectives of the education system and on its patterns of learning and teaching, may well have studied more systematically than we have the shape of things to come. In this chapter we shall merely identify briefly some features of the recent and current scene which have influenced us in considering the organisation and administration of that system.

1.4 Certainly the most significant developments in educational administration since the field was last surveyed, just over a decade ago by the Commission on Education (hereafter the Currie Commission), have resulted from the discovery of education by the economist. The impact of this discovery has been felt world-wide. It meant accepting the concept of education as not merely a service for individual consumers but also as a form of social investment with identifiable (and, at least potentially, quantifiable) payoffs; it also meant an increasing recognition of the role of planning in educational policymaking and administration. We do not have to

leave our own shores to find a classic description of that process: in C. E. Beeby's words, "Educational planning is the exercising of foresight in determining the policy, priorities, and costs of an educational system, having due regard for economic and political realities, for the system's potential for growth, and for the needs of the country and of the pupils served by this system."*

1.5 Education accordingly came to be recognised as a vital sector in overall economic planning, as the very foundation for national development of the new countries of Africa and Asia, and as an essential tool, too, in developed countries facing the social and economic consequences of accelerating technological change.

1.6 Political acceptance of the theory and practice of planning came, slightly belatedly, to New Zealand with the establishment in 1968 of the National Development Conference and the subsequent development of NDC sector councils. These, in education as elsewhere, were by no means the whole of planning. They were attempts to achieve a consensus on broad policies and priorities, but planning machinery was also needed at the administrative level to convert those policies and priorities into operational programmes.

1.7 At that administrative level, the time has passed when educational planning could be thought of as preparing enrolment projections, struggling with population bulges, producing an annual budget, and possibly acquiring school sites in advance of rising land values in areas of prospective residential development. With the advent of the computer, opening up new opportunities for the retrieval and analysis of a wide range of data, the educational planner is now in a better position to evaluate the returns on the present investment in education, to assess alternatives which might offer better returns, to consider whether increased demands by education on the national purse can be justified, and in general to arrive at optimal priorities in the light of limited resources. Of course, there are variables which still evade quantification: the theories of the mathematical models are not as yet wholly translatable into practice, and the claims of the economist are today more modest than they often were a decade ago. The problems are nevertheless on the current agenda.

1.8 It is in this context that we draw attention to the creation within the Department of Education (hereafter the department) of two planning groups, the Research and Planning Unit and the Curriculum Development Unit—the elements of quantity and quality. In the chapter dealing with the department we have explored how the modern educational planner, with his highly specialised and

*Beeby, C. E. *Planning and the Educational Administrator*, UNESCO, Paris, 1967.

largely computerised techniques, might appropriately be fitted into its administrative structure while preserving the policy-forming responsibilities of its top management and line officers.

1.9 But *whilst administrators and planners play a valuable, indeed a vital, part in the organisation of the education system, we attach great importance to the participation of the general public.* At a national level this is reflected in the extensive patterns of consultation between departmental senior officers and a wide variety of interest groups; we have also suggested that the Advisory Council on Educational Planning (perhaps renamed) should play a continuing role in directing public attention to topical problems of educational development which may arise from time to time, by commissioning investigations and publishing the resulting reports. However, the impression which emerges from the submissions we received is that *it is at the local level, specially the running of individual schools and the development of closer links between them and the local community, including community use of school facilities, that public interest is liveliest.* This theme recurs throughout our report. It will be found, for instance, not only in the chapter dealing with the school system, but in our approach to pre-school education with its emphasis on a developing partnership between parents, teachers, voluntary bodies, and the Government, and again in our discussion of the community school and the community college in the chapter on continuing education.

1.10 This emphasis on the importance of the local community, and on the related concept of giving each individual school or college, institute or university, as much self-government as possible, consistent though it is with many current trends towards decentralisation and devolution, may seem to conflict with other trends away from local authorities and towards larger units of government and administration. The resultant of these forces is "regionalism". We, too, have found it necessary to use this concept, though the term we use is "district" since "region" in educational administration refers to the three large areas of the country administered by the regional offices of the department. However, we do not see the district as a substitute for the locality, but as a supplement to it. The individual school and its local community are the realities for day-to-day operations; the district, which is not a focus for such immediate loyalties, becomes necessary for certain aspects of planning and co-ordination and the economic provision of certain services. Unlike the region, which in education is an agent of the central government, the district as we envisage it is an agent of the local governing bodies of schools—a quasi-federal organisation for their common purposes. The alternative to it is not greater autonomy for local institutions, but increased centralisation.

1.11 Autonomy is of course a relative concept (as we illustrate in our discussion of the university system). *We are confident that greater autonomy can and should be achieved in several parts of the educational system*; nevertheless, one important limitation of its extent is the tradition of centralised financing. Attractive though the idea is, in many ways, of financially independent local or regional education authorities, we see no reason to challenge tradition by espousing it. Rather, *we have chosen to identify those functions which a strong central department can most usefully perform, and to encourage the dispersal of other functions as far as possible to local and district institutions.*

1.12 It would be idle to pretend that all current social trends are as potentially fruitful for educational development as is that towards decentralisation. The role of the school in inculcating standards and values, in an increasingly "permissive" society in which the influence of the peer-group seems to be displacing that of the family, has doubtless been studied by the other working parties. We have been specially struck by the organisational and administrative problems faced by secondary schools, in consequence of the sharp questioning (and at times, the rejection) of widely-held values on the part of many of their senior pupils. We have indeed devoted a chapter to considering ways in which those problems might be abated through organisational changes.

1.13 But it is not the young alone who experience a sense of malaise in modern society. Daily the news media confront their elders, too, with evidences of the complexities of life, here and overseas; and for some of them surf and turf, pub and club, are not enough. They may try to make some sense of the world in which they live; or, despairing of doing so, they may turn to cultivating the garden of the mind as well as of the ¼-acre section; or seeking a fuller life rather than a more ample livelihood, they may seek to qualify for a more satisfying job. It is for people such as these, as well as for those who have to upgrade or change their skills or to occupy their increasing hours of leisure, that continuing education exists. There is likely to be an expansion of activities at this level, and we have devoted a chapter to the organisational problems which this would present.

1.14 There is one further element in the background to our thinking which we wish to mention. We are conscious that in our report we have not provided the detailed costings which might have been expected from our terms of reference. In fact our own recommendations involve comparatively modest expenditure. But we feel that the proper time for assessing costs will not be reached until after the three reports of the working parties have been critically discussed

by the regional seminars; when the surviving and new proposals resulting from this process have been integrated, then will be the time to estimate the costs which may affect priorities in the ensuing plan.

1.15 We began this quick sketch of relevant social trends by heralding the arrival on the educational scene of the economist. We close it by noting the even more recent appearance of the radical sociologist: "No doubt we ought to spend even more on the education of the young than we do," says Paul Goodman, "but I would not give a penny of my money to the present administrators and I would largely dismantle the present school machinery."*

1.16 We have not felt it useful to attempt to de-school society, nor to draw up a blueprint for an entirely new educational system. The scope for revolutionary change is limited, if only because most of those who would occupy positions in the post-revolutionary system—as teachers or administrators, as students or as pupils—have been shaped by the present one. Nevertheless, we have had in our minds the warning of one of the more popular futurologists. "It is a mistake to assume that the present-day educational system is unchanging," remarks Toffler†. "On the contrary it is undergoing repeated change. But most of this change is no more than an attempt to refine the existing machinery, making it even more efficient in pursuit of obsolete goals." The lesson, we take it, is that intelligent reorganisation should aim at making the system more adaptable and more responsive, to meet the needs of a future about which the only confident prediction is that change will be increasingly rapid.

1.17 This we have set out to do, in a variety of ways. *We have sought devolution of decision-making as far as possible, to encourage adaptation to local conditions and circumstances.* Since these vary, the system which we envisage cannot be uniform, but must permit a variety of organisational forms and practices. It would thus make possible innovation and experimentation, more readily than any uniform system could. But to ensure that the results of these innovations and experiments can rapidly become known in other localities, and to prevent excessive damage from the autonomous decisions of individual institutions, networks of information and liaison are needed. Diversity tempered by publicity, autonomy tempered by liaison, and participation tempered by professionalism, are the maxims implicit in this report.

*"Freedom and Learning: The Need for Choice", in *The Saturday Review*, New York, 18 May 1968.
†Toffler, A. *Future Shock*, The Bodley Head, London, 1971.

Chapter 2 PRE-SCHOOL EDUCATION

Introduction

2.1 Many organisations are concerned with the development of young children, from the period of ante-natal care to the age at which they enter school. Since pre-school education in a broad sense covers all aspects of child development (physical, emotional, and social, as well as intellectual), it is not easy to decide which organisations and institutions to discuss and which to leave aside when investigating it. We have chosen to direct our attention mainly to the free kindergarten and play centre movements, but shall mention others from time to time.

2.2 Both free kindergarten and play centres are run by voluntary organisations in partnership with the State. The main differences between them are that kindergartens rely primarily on salaried teachers whereas play centres emphasise more strongly the participation of mothers; and that kindergartens rely to a greater extent than play centres on specially constructed buildings. The State contributes a subsidy towards the purchase of approved sites, the construction of approved buildings, and the initial provision of approved equipment; it selects and trains kindergarten teachers, and provides the funds for paying their salaries; and it supplies professional and administrative help through the schools development officer, the officer for pre-school education, and a team of district pre-school advisers. The local kindergarten association is responsible for finding a site; for raising enough money to pay (with subsidy aid) for the site and building; for maintaining the building; and for appointing and employing its teachers. The local play centre association has to find and (usually) rent its premises, recruit and train its supervisors and helpers, and provide its equipment (with an initial subsidy on approved items). Both kindergarten and play centres have to provide their own consumable supplies, meet other current operating costs, and replace equipment when it is no longer serviceable.

2.3 In 1972 nearly 27,000 children were enrolled in kindergartens and over 19,000 at play centres. These figures are higher, by 6,000 and 7,500 respectively, than those for 1967. During that period the number of kindergartens increased by 70 to reach 340, and of play centres by nearly 240 to reach 633; the number of kindergarten teachers rose from 510 to 690, and of kindergarten teachers in training from 243 to 412. Clearly, this is a rapidly growing

sector of the educational system, and since the aim of current policy is to make pre-school services available for all who wish to use them, it will continue to be so. Our main concern in this chapter must therefore be to consider whether the existing forms of organisation and administration are capable of handling this growth.

2.4 In doing so, we are fortunately in a position to draw on the recommendations of a major inquiry into pre-school education, conducted during 1970 and 1971 by a committee chaired by Professor Hill of Massey University*. Accordingly, in the following sections we shall summarise its findings, noting in each case what developments have occurred since it reported, and shall confine our own comments and recommendations to the final section of this chapter.

The Training of Pre-school Teachers

2.5 The Hill Committee regarded as of critical importance for the development of pre-school education the quality of the people who would provide it, and thus stressed the need for improved training programmes for pre-school staff, and for increasing the number of staff so trained. It recommended the introduction, by stages, within the primary teachers colleges of such training programmes, initially of 2 years' duration but extending to 3 years as soon as possible. During the transition period, the kindergarten training centres were to be incorporated as pre-school departments of teachers colleges.

2.6 Within the colleges, pre-school and primary teacher training were to be closely associated. In the first year, all students would take much the same course, leaving open a choice whether to continue with pre-school or primary training at the end of that year. The pre-school course would lead to a teachers college diploma (pre-school education), and on the completion of a probationary year, to a pre-school teachers certificate of the department.

2.7 It followed that there should be identical entrance qualifications for pre-school and primary trainees, that both should be entitled to allowances on a common scale for their first 2 years of training, and that pre-school as well as primary trainees should have opportunities to undertake appropriate university studies. Like the primary service, the pre-school service should offer the inducement of a shortened course to well-qualified entrants, including university graduates. For both services too there should be opportunities for

**Report of the Committee of Inquiry into Pre-school Education*, Department of Education, Wellington, November 1971.

advanced study, in teachers colleges as well as in the department's in-service training courses. The proposed changes were seen to entail a revision of pre-school salary scales to give adequate recognition to the qualifications required in the reorganised service.

2.8 Most of the recommendations referred more directly to the training of kindergarten teachers than of play centre supervisors, but their needs were not overlooked. Serious consideration was to be given to requiring trainee supervisors to take at least part of their training in courses run by teachers colleges and university extension departments. A review of play centre diplomas was recommended so that holders of such a diploma would qualify for admission to advanced training courses. Staff working in independent pre-school and day-care centres were also wherever possible to be trained in the same courses as those in approved kindergartens and play centres.

2.9 Action has already been taken in line with some of the Hill Committee's recommendations on training. Thirty kindergarten trainees were admitted in 1973 to North Shore Teachers College, and 40 to Hamilton Teachers College; both institutions will receive a further intake in 1974, and there will also be an intake at the Palmerston North Teachers College. Proposals are currently being studied for Wellington, Christchurch, and Dunedin.

2.10 At North Shore and Hamilton the work of kindergarten trainees is being closely co-ordinated with that of primary trainees, and the kindergarten trainees form an integral part of the student body in matters of discipline and participation in general college activities. As further steps towards achieving parity for kindergarten trainees, the rate of the grant per student to cover running costs has been increased in kindergarten training centres to that applicable in teachers colleges, and the student health service has been made available to kindergarten trainees on the same basis as for other teacher trainees; the former are, however, still paid kindergarten student allowances, whether at training centres or teachers colleges. Kindergarten trainees, if appropriately qualified, may also now pursue part-time university studies, provided that they satisfy at the same time the requirements of their own training course.

Pre-school Programmes

2.11 The Hill Committee expected the improved training of pre-school staff to lead to improvements in the programmes which they provided. Specifically, closer attention was to be paid to their potentialities for promoting intellectual development, especially

of children whose home background was not providing a sufficient stimulus in this respect, and it was also hoped to enrich and extend the programmes for 4-year-olds and for those with special needs, including the gifted. The committee considered that such advances should be underpinned by research in a university child development research centre.

2.12 A beginning has been made towards putting these recommendations into effect. During 1973 the department's pre-school advisers have given attention to the needs of older and abler pre-school children, and have advised kindergartens and play centres on measures to strengthen their programmes for these groups. However, progress in these directions is bound to take time, depending as it does (as the Hill Committee noted) on nationwide advances in the initial and in-service training of pre-school staff, and on research into child development in a range of pre-school settings.

Children with Special Needs

2.13 The Hill Committee recommended that in both initial and in-service training, emphasis should be placed on understanding and catering for children from different linguistic and cultural backgrounds, those in isolated families, and those in hospitals. Where possible, handicapped children were to be accommodated in regular pre-school centres; where this was not advisable, because of the severity of their handicap or for other reasons, special groups were to be formed, or appropriate school facilities opened to them. The committee visualised special training for those working with handicapped pre-school children, and the backing of specialists, for instance, in guidance and in speech therapy. Such proposals necessitated close liaison between the pre-school services and organisations catering for the handicapped, such as the Foundation for the Blind, the Crippled Children's Society, the Intellectually Handicapped Children's Society, and the special education services of the department.

2.14 Among subsequent developments in these directions, the admission of some severely handicapped pre-school children to schools which provide special education is now commonly accepted, and care is also being taken to make the ordinary pre-school services more accessible to other children in need, through the co-operation of the relevant voluntary organisations. The guidance and advisory services have been strengthened, and in consequence are more readily available to assist pre-school staff working with handicapped children. To help isolated families, pre-school groups are now being

run in primary schools in several remote districts, there are pilot schemes in some of these schools for using part-time community workers to support and advise family play groups, and one local kindergarten association has introduced a mobile pre-school service.

The Availability of Pre-school Education

2.15 The Hill Committee found that about two in every six children were receiving some pre-school education, varying in length from as little as a few weeks to as much as 2 to 3 years. Two more in every six, it was estimated, would be sent to pre-school centres by their parents if there were places available. Of the remaining two who were unlikely to be so sent, one would benefit materially from pre-school education, whilst the other's home and neighbourhood provided an adequate pre-school environment. The committee favoured the retention by parents of the right to decide whether their children should attend pre-school centres, but sought to encourage attendance through publicity. It also favoured expanding the pre-school services, by establishing new centres and by increasing the use of existing ones, till places were available for all who wished them.

2.16 Progress is being made towards providing pre-school places for all who desire them. Already, the proportion of New Zealand children so served is approaching 50 percent. The annual intake of kindergarten teacher trainees has increased from 185 in 1970 (the year in which the Hill Committee was established) to 280 in 1973, and a quota of 340 has been approved for 1974. Possible forms of assistance to non-profit day-care centres which provide pre-school education are currently being studied by the department, in conjunction with other departments affected, specially the Department of Social Welfare.

Administrative Consequences

2.17 The Hill Committee rejected direct provision by the State of pre-school education as the means of achieving its objectives; it differed thereby from the 1947 Consultative Committee on Pre-school Education, which had favoured its absorption into the State education system. It preferred to strengthen the partnership between the State and voluntary organisations in three ways: increased State assistance, a closer relationship between the department and the voluntary organisations and more effective co-operation between the voluntary bodies themselves.

2.18 An increase in the State's financial contribution to pre-school education would in any case have resulted from an increase in the number of pre-school centres or kindergarten teachers, given

the nature of the subsidy system and State provision of the salaries of those teachers. However, the Hill Committee envisaged several new forms of assistance, financial and otherwise. It recommended, for instance, that the State contribute towards the running expenses of pre-school centres, on a graduated scale according to the quality and extent of the services they provided. Maintenance grants, equipment issues and grants, subsidised salaries for staff in centres other than kindergartens, the provision of architectural services, loan finance through the State Advances Corporation, and subsidies on shifting, erecting, and, where necessary, modifying relocatable units, were among its other suggestions. But the State was to provide professional as well as material assistance, through a much enlarged corps of pre-school advisers located in each education district and serving the kindergartens, play centres, and independent pre-school centres in that district.

2.19 Closer co-operation was to be promoted through a new structure of committees. A National Advisory Council on Pre-school Education, and a District Pre-school Council in each education board district were proposed, to consist of representatives of the department and of the main pre-school organisations. By thus encouraging the voluntary bodies to co-operate in expanding the provision of pre-school services, the Hill Committee hoped to maintain the values of voluntary effort and of close involvement by parents in the pre-school education of their children, and to allow for enough diversity to satisfy local needs and demands. At the same time, greater participation by the State would help ensure that pre-school education was available for children who needed it irrespective of where they lived, and (if need be) even though parents in a given locality might be unable to carry the usual or the desirable measure of direct responsibility.

2.20 Towards the end of 1972 the then Minister of Education approved the establishment of district pre-school committees and of a National Advisory Council on Pre-school Education. Each district pre-school committee is chaired by the district senior inspector of schools (or his representative), and includes representatives from the kindergarten and play centre movements, the independent pre-school centres, and the Departments of Education, Health, Social Welfare, and (in most cases) Maori and Island Affairs. There is provision for additional members to meet special circumstances. The committee is responsible for assessing pre-school needs within the district, examining proposals for new services, recommending what service should be introduced where, and establishing district priorities among new schemes.

2.21 The National Pre-school Council contains representatives of the same organisations and departments, and of the universities and teachers colleges. Its composition and duties will be reviewed after its initial term of 3 years. It is expected to meet once or twice a year, to review progress in pre-school education and to establish needs and priorities. From time to time it will report to the Director-General of Education, and through him to the Minister.

Future Developments

2.22 *We are completely in sympathy with the view of the Hill Committee that pre-school education should be expanded through a strengthened partnership between the State and the relevant voluntary organisations, and with the steps which have so far been taken to give effect to that idea.* In the first paragraphs of this section we shall spell out what seem to us to be implications of this newly-adopted system which have yet to be fully realised, before considering one or two other areas for future action.

2.23 A system geared to provide pre-school places for all who wish them, largely at the public expense, gives tremendous opportunities to the voluntary organisations; but at the same time, they will incur new responsibilities, and will in some respects no longer be as free as they were when only a small proportion of 3 and 4-year-olds were catered for. Previously, each organisation could decide in a self-sufficient way how its services were to develop, where and when its centres would be established (subject to minimal restrictions), what standards were to be achieved, and what service was to be provided. Many of these must now be collective decisions taken at the district level. Moreover, it must be remembered that when a centre (whether a kindergarten or play centre) is established in a given locality, the organisation which runs it has, at least for the time being, a virtual monopoly in that locality. It incurs thereby a responsibility, in return for the aid which it receives from the public, to ensure that a regular service is provided, of a standard acceptable to parents and to the department, readily available to all children irrespective of whether their parents feel allegiance to the kindergarten or the play centre movement. The department in turn will preserve that monopoly, unless it is clear that there are enough children in the locality to warrant two different pre-school centres. *In the latter case, parents should have a choice; but it is not to be expected that such parallel facilities could be provided throughout the country.*

2.24 A majority of parents probably have no compelling allegiance either to the kindergarten or to the play centre movement. Their initial concern has been to find a pre-school place for their child. Some, however, as they begin to see and appreciate the

social and educational benefits conferred by the pre-school centre in which that place was found, begin to identify themselves with the traditions and spirit of the association which runs it, and come to take an active part in that association at a local or national level. Hitherto, the thousands of parents who have thus helped to run the pre-school system have had no reason to look further afield than their local association, or the national organisation to which it belongs. Now they are being asked to share in a collaborative effort, through district committees and the National Council, which will in some circumstances require them to assist in making available in some localities forms of pre-school education other than that to which they personally subscribe.

2.25 This sense of commitment to a movement, which inspires so much of the voluntary effort in pre-school education, cannot be ignored, nor contemptuously disregarded in the supposed interests of efficient administration. What is needed is to encourage an ecumenical tendency; and *in our view the department has a special responsibility, through its pre-school advisory service and through its participation in the National Council and district committees, to foster mutual respect between the pre-school movements and to help them learn from each other.* In the process each of them will probably change, though we do not assume that all differences will disappear. Initially, the more highly structured relationships of the new system, with its committees and council, may place greater strains on the play centre movement, owing to its rather loose federal form of administration, its comparative lack of full-time trained staff, and its greater day-to-day reliance on voluntary workers. But while it may well need to make adjustments to cope with the new situation, its emphasis on administrative flexibility and voluntary effort can also be a source of strength, and it clearly has a continuing contribution to make in the field of parent education.

2.26 Effectively to encourage these ecumenical tendencies, the department will probably need to strengthen still further its corps of pre-school advisers. It would clearly be wasteful to have parallel teams of advisers travelling the country to assist separately each voluntary association; this would, moreover, reduce the opportunities for each association to learn from the other. Steps have been taken to provide, in each district, a senior pre-school officer to advise the district committee and to supply professional leadership, and the appointment of a further 7 advisers has recently been approved; but adequately to cover the needs of the 10 districts, a total of 35 or so may well be needed.

2.27 Apart from encouraging and helping to co-ordinate the activities of the voluntary organisations, the department will have

other responsibilities in pre-school education. These will include reorganising the initial training of pre-school staff, as an integral part of the work of teachers colleges, and providing further training during their service. *In view of the rapid expansion of pre-school education we consider the provision of such opportunities for further training to be of greater priority than extending to 3 years the initial training for kindergarten teachers.* The department will also have to ensure that pre-school services are available in cases of special need, where voluntary organisations cannot provide them; examples include facilities for some handicapped children, and also special projects such as setting up a pre-school centre in a new public works town. However, the recently increased subsidies and loan assistance for establishing pre-school centres should enable the voluntary organisations to move more rapidly to meet emerging needs than they have hitherto been able to.

2.28 To conclude this survey of the new system and its implications, *we call attention to the recommendation of the Hill Committee regarding publicity. A fuller information service is needed for parents and voluntary workers, explaining the purposes of pre-school education and the varied ways in which it is being provided.* It might take the form of booklets, and possibly of correspondence courses organised through the Correspondence School.

2.29 A number of problems and possibilities remain, which have not been covered in the preceding survey; we believe that they merit public discussion. First, there is the problem of compulsion. If some of the children most in need of the stimulus of pre-school education are deprived of that opportunity because of parental indifference or opposition, should the remedy be confined to publicity (including the efforts of the voluntary organisations and pre-school staffs to arouse parental interest), or is there a point at which the department should take the initiative?

2.30 Second, there is the problem of State provision or self-help, which may be illustrated by reference to the pre-school education of Maori children. On the one hand the Maori Graduates Association regards early childhood development as so important that it calls for the prompt provision of such centres irrespective of the degrees of parental or community involvement. Within the play centre movement, on the other hand, the view has been expressed that parent education is a crucial part of any worth-while programme of pre-school development, and hence that parental involvement cannot thus be disregarded. Government policy appears to be midway between these rival positions. Whilst it generally expects parents to make some effort to establish and maintain a

pre-school centre, it is prepared to act in special cases of need, such, for instance, as a new housing area, a temporary Ministry of Works settlement, or a remote Maori community. Does the unwillingness of parents to make the expected effort constitute a special case of need?

2.31 Third, there are the problems of the child-care centres. Many thousands of pre-school children, aged between 6 months and 5 years, are in day-care centres and day nurseries. Some are the children of solo parents; an increasing number have working mothers, in consequence of recent changes in employment patterns and social attitudes, and many of them are catered for in centres provided by industrial and commercial concerns which employ substantial numbers of married women. That such centres should provide an adequate standard of physical care goes without saying, and most of those provided by business firms do so. But what of their responsibility for the intellectual, emotional, and social development of children? Bearing in mind that numbers of 3 and 4-year-olds attend such centres on a full 5-day basis, should the organisations running them be required to employ trained pre-school staff? Or is this an area for persuasion rather than compulsion? Should subsidies be used to encourage improved staffing and equipment?

2.32 What, finally, should be done for pre-school children in remote areas? Pilot schemes based on primary schools, and the introduction in one locality of a mobile pre-school service, have already been mentioned, and further developments in those directions are no doubt possible. But what, for instance, of a transport allowance to assist country mothers (or perhaps groups of mothers) to bring their children to a pre-school centre once or twice a week? And should the broadcasting authorities be encouraged, in consultation with the department, to develop radio and television programmes for pre-school children?

2.33 These are a few of the problems which are yet to be resolved. In general, however, *the recently created organisation for pre-school education appears well designed to provide an expanded service on agreed lines, rapid progress is currently being made, and no further major restructuring should be contemplated at present.*

Chapter 3 THE SCHOOL SYSTEM

Introduction

3.1 In this chapter we shall be concerned with the organisation of primary, intermediate, and secondary schools in the State sector, but shall defer till the next chapter a discussion of some problems and possibilities relating to the top forms of secondary schools. Independent schools have not been considered, on the ground that a major review of their place in the country's educational system has been taking place contemporaneously with our inquiry.

3.2 In 1973 there were 394,000 pupils at over 2,000 public primary schools, and nearly 72,000 at 123 intermediate schools. Taking primary and intermediate enrolments together, the increase in the 5-year period 1968–73 was about 3 percent.

3.3 In the same year there were nearly 172,000 pupils at 279 public secondary schools (including area and district high schools), an increase since 1968 of nearly 13 percent.

3.4 In addition, the Correspondence School provided tuition for over 1,200 primary, over 700 full-time secondary, and over 1,500 part-time secondary pupils. Over 9,000 pupils were receiving full-time special education (for example, in schools for the deaf), and 4,000 received part-time assistance. In addition, the psychological and guidance services are estimated to have catered for upwards of 20,000 pupils.

3.5 The structure of the system still reveals its nineteenth-century origins, when primary schooling was provided for everyone but secondary education (in separate schools) only for the social and intellectual elite. Separate secondary schools are still typical, although nowadays nearly everyone continues at least to form 5 of the secondary school, and an increasing proportion continues to forms 6 and 7. The structure is complicated by the fact that, during the past half century, separate intermediate schools have developed to which rather more than half of the relevant age group now go, instead of attending the top two classes of the primary school. Though they are separate, and offer a wider range of teaching than do primary schools, intermediate schools are controlled in the same way as primary schools, and we shall not distinguish between them when discussing the organisation and administration of the primary system.

3.6 The structure is further complicated by a minority of schools, especially in rural areas, which overlap the primary/secondary boundary line. Where there are too few pupils for a

viable secondary school of the usual form 3 to form 7 type, there may instead be a district high school, which is a primary school with a secondary department to which pupils from other primary schools in the locality also proceed. District high schools have increasingly been replaced by two other types of school. The form 1–7 school is in effect a combined intermediate and secondary school, but is not divided into separate primary and secondary departments. The area school (or reorganised district high school) is in effect a unified primary and secondary school which draws from other local primary schools at the form 1 level, whereas the traditional district high school draws at form 3.

3.7 These variant patterns indicate that the primary/secondary division (that is, the rule that one must change school when advancing from form 2 to form 3) is not divinely ordained. Indeed, that division seems to us a consequence of history rather than of educational desirability, and we suspect that these and other variant patterns might well have become more widely adopted, as appropriate to the circumstances of given localities, but for the institutional pressures which have been generated by the primary/secondary split. Such institutional pressures are apparent not only among the governing bodies of schools but in the separate organisations of primary and secondary teachers, the primary and secondary directorates in the head office of the department, the separate primary and secondary inspectorates, and (except in Christchurch) the separate colleges for training primary and secondary teachers. This is not, of course, to say that the differences between teaching an infant class and form 7 are unimportant; our point is that genuine differences exist between several phases of the educational process, hence that there is no natural and universal single dividing line but a variety of possible boundaries, opening the way for experimentation and for adopting structures which suit local circumstances. In some areas there might well be a case, for example, for having primary schools (to standard 4), middle schools (to form 5), and a senior college (forms 6 and 7).

3.8 The history of educational administration in this country is littered with unsuccessful attempts to change the school system. They failed because the various reformers were unable to convince enough of the general public to overcome the entrenched pressures. Accordingly, *we have contented ourselves with modest proposals such as we believe to constitute a minimum programme for change. These proposals are, however, designed to create growth points for further change, as this becomes practical. They lead above all to greater flexibility, variety, and suitability to local circumstances.*

3.9 However the process of schooling may be divided, problems are likely to occur in the transition of pupils from one school to another. We are not persuaded that such problems (such as occur at present between primary and secondary schools) can be overcome by changes in the governing or controlling authorities of schools, nor even (as has sometimes been suggested) by placing all schools under common regional councils. Whether Johnny and Mary have been appropriately prepared for the work which is expected of them in form 3, and what can be done to ensure that their younger brothers and sisters are better prepared, are professional rather than administrative questions, for which answers should primarily be sought by teachers and inspectors rather than by members of school committees or education boards or secondary boards of governors. *Close liaison is thus needed between primary/intermediate and secondary staffs, both nationally (for example by collaboration in curriculum development) and at a local level between each secondary school and its contributing primary and intermediate schools.* Such liaison, especially at the national level, has been improving in recent years. We acknowledge that liaison at a local level is never easy (and is specially difficult in areas of high population mobility); but this is not to say that it is unimportant. This problem may warrant special attention in in-service training programmes for teachers, and in the work of the inspectorate.

The Present System of School Government

3.10 Each primary and intermediate school is managed by a school committee, elected biennially by a meeting of householders. It provides, out of an "incidentals" grant, for the school's consumable stores, heating and lighting, equipment maintenance, cleaning and so forth, and also spends (usually on extra equipment) any funds which have been raised locally. It receives reports from the principal on the running of the school, and has some limited powers in that field, for instance to suspend a teacher, to employ cleaning and caretaking staff, to authorise public use of grounds and buildings in out-of-school hours, and to permit religious instruction.

3.11 The primary or intermediate school's teaching staff are appointed and employed by the education board for that district. (The country is divided into 10 such districts.) Board members are elected, on a ward basis, by the school committee members. As well as being the employing authority, the board decides how the funds for school maintenance shall be spent, it plans where new schools are to be built and old ones enlarged or replaced or closed, and (subject to the Government's providing the necessary funds and approvals) it arranges for the purchases of sites and the design

and construction of the resulting buildings. It administers grants for furniture, equipment, textbooks, libraries, and other purposes. It also devises the school transport system for the district, organises the selection of primary teacher trainees, and provides a range of services for other bodies, for example, accounting services for school committees and, in many cases, for secondary boards of governors. To these ends the board (unlike the school committee) employs a substantial and diverse staff.

3.12 Secondary schools are generally managed by a board of governors. Commonly, such a board will manage a single school, though several of them manage two or more. Some board members are elected by the parents of pupils, some are nominated by other bodies (such as a local authority or a university), and some may be co-opted. Like the education board, the board of governors is an employing authority, appointing and controlling its teaching staff; but in other respects it is more like a school committee. It may have a rather wider range of management functions (for example, when there is hostel accommodation to be run), but it is not in a position to employ a substantial administrative staff. Indeed, the principal quite often serves as the secretary to his board of governors. In three cases, secondary boards in a locality have federated into a secondary schools council to provide themselves with certain common services (accounting, secretarial, and—in the case of the Christchurch Council—payroll servicing); but neither secondary boards nor councils are staffed to undertake such "district" functions as an education board performs, for instance in deciding where funds for maintenance are to be spent, where new or enlarged schools are needed, or what buildings shall be constructed. For secondary schools, such decisions are normally taken in the regional offices of the department.

3.13 To this point we have sketched the system of school government mainly as it affects the provision and servicing of the necessary pre-requisites for education—teachers, buildings, equipment, consumable stores, heating and lighting and so on. Regulation of the processes of education itself is a more complex matter. Who decides what shall be taught, how it shall be taught, how discipline shall be maintained, and how these processes should be reviewed and improved? School committees, education boards, and secondary boards of governors have in practice only a limited authority in these fields. They may authorise certain school rules, and deal with the most serious infringement of them (where, for instance, expulsion may be involved); they may decide whether certain subjects shall be taught (religious instruction, in the case of a school committee, and optional subjects in the case of a board of governors); their

decisions on staffing, buildings, and equipment may well be taken in the light of implications about what shall be taught, and how. Nevertheless, many "professional" decisions are made on the one hand by the department or the Minister, and on the other by the principal and the staff of the school; in the latter case they may be influenced by the school committee or board of governors, but are not necessarily subject to its control.

3.14 The Minister and the department decide what subjects shall be taught, and (specially significant in the case of secondary education) what optional subjects may be taught, and issue a syllabus for each such subject. The department may also influence how those subjects are taught, as for instance through its publications and its in-service training programmes for teachers. (The introduction of the "new maths" is a conspicuous example.) The system is, however, not as centralised as these statements may suggest. The approved subject prescriptions tend to be general rather than specific, leaving considerable freedom to the school and the individual teacher to devise classroom programmes. In primary schools, for instance, the principal and staff will draw up programmes for the various classes (the "school scheme" for the year), on which the work plans prepared by the teachers (either individually or in groups) are then based. The department in turn keeps an eye on this process, and on other aspects of the school's professional organisation, through the work of its inspectorate, but this (as we explain more fully in chapter 7) operates rather through suggestion than direction.

3.15 School government on its "professional" side is thus complex, a network of influences rather than a power structure. Indeed, it must in our view be so. The effectiveness of the processes of learning and teaching inevitably depends on the professional capacity and integrity of the teacher in the classroom. Since his experience is limited, he can be assisted by other professionals such as principals and inspectors, by publications, and by further training. But it is important, too, that the professionals should be open to influence by laymen who can express views widely shared among the public about what schools are and should be doing, not only (as in the case of the Minister) at the national level, but also at the level of the local community.

The School Committee and the Board of Governors

3.16 There are indeed several advantages in having a predominantly lay governing body for each school. It helps to foster local interest in the school; it increases the opportunities for feedback from the local community to the school; it ensures that changes in

school policy are not made unilaterally by professionals but are explained and justified to laymen; and it strengthens the position of the principal, to the extent that in matters of controversy he need not stand alone but can obtain authoritative backing from representatives of the community.

3.17 For these reasons *we strongly favour the retention of primary/intermediate school committees and secondary boards of governors, albeit with modifications shortly to be discussed. Moreover, without questioning the dedication or impartiality of multi-school boards of governors where they presently exist, we consider that an individual board for each school would make possible a closer involvement of the local community in the management of that school. We do not propose that multi-school boards of governors be dissolved where local opinion favours their continuance, but we recommend that any appeal to the Minister from a parent-teacher association or parents' association for a separate board of governors for their secondary school should be sympathetically considered.*

3.18 We recognise that a decision of a local governing body may occasionally generate a public controversy which attracts national attention, and that in such circumstances critics of the decision may urge the Minister of Education to intervene. At present, the law does not confer on the Minister any power to reverse the decision of a governing body, nor to issue directions to it, in matters which lie within its statutory competence. (Recourse may be had to the courts, if it be claimed that the decision is outside its competence, or has been improperly reached.) *We have considered whether the law should be changed to give the Minister power to issue such directions, and recommend that it should not.* The number of cases in which such intervention would be warranted is very small, and can be regarded as a modest price to pay for local democracy. On the other hand, once such a power were conferred, the opponents of every decision would be entitled to invite the Minister's intervention, and even though in most cases he might decide to take no action, he would become heavily and unnecessarily involved in numerous local problems. It follows, of course, that governing bodies must be prepared to endure the consequences of their own decisions, and cannot look to the Minister to rescue them from controversial situations.

Powers of Appointment

3.19 On the face of it, it is difficult to justify giving a secondary school the exclusive right to appoint its teachers, while denying a primary or intermediate school (which may be as large, or larger) any effective voice in staff appointments. We are aware that a school committee is told which teacher the education board proposes to

appoint to its staff, and is given an opportunity to object; but this right of objection is very different from a board of governors' right of selection, and it is so infrequently invoked that the School Committees Federation has considered relinquishing it altogether.

3.20 This difference in the powers of school committees and boards of governors is an apt illustration not only of divergent historical developments (school committees lost their powers of appointment in 1914) but of the impracticability of proposing a uniform pattern which ignores the facts of history. The NZEI and the education boards could be expected to resist, strongly and with every prospect of success, a restoration to school committees of powers of appointment; and in view of the number of primary and intermediate schools and of appointments within them, such a change would in any case be impracticable. On the other hand, boards of governors and secondary principals could equally be expected to resist any suggestion that secondary schools be deprived of their powers of appointment; and the number of appointments in such schools is not so large as to make that necessary.

3.21 *Believing as we do in decentralising to the greatest practicable extent, we favour the retention by boards of governors of their powers of appointment.* We are nevertheless concerned at the extent to which some of those boards have in practice delegated to principals the responsibility for selecting staff. Certainly, we would expect a principal's advice on these matters to carry great weight; but appointments are too important a responsibility to be left to a single individual, however competent, and there should be some safeguards to ensure the full and fair consideration of all applicants. Accordingly, *we recommend that each board of governors establish an appointments committee, that such a committee be required to consider the applications for every permanent teaching appointment, and that in the case of senior positions that committee make its recommendations to the full board.* Furthermore, we are conscious that in making appointments two sets of considerations are relevant: an awareness of the specific needs of the school, and a careful evaluation of the merits of individual applicants. The principal can be relied on to advise the appointments committee about the needs of the school, but there is a case for making available to that committee an independent and expert opinion on the merits of competing candidates, especially when the vacancy to be filled is that of principal or a position of responsibility. Accordingly, *we further recommend that the board of governors be required to inform the district senior inspector in advance of the meeting of its appointments committee, and that he or his nominee be entitled to attend those meetings at his discretion, with a right to speak but not vote.* (At present, he is customarily invited to attend the meeting at which the principal is appointed.) *There may*

also be a case for involving the national association of secondary teachers in appointments, and we recommend that the department explore this possibility with the Secondary Schools Boards Association and the PPTA.

3.22 We recognise that powers of appointment similar to those of boards of governors cannot be conferred on school committees, but must remain with the education boards. Such boards must currently be advised, when making appointments, by a statutory appointments committee consisting of a board member, the district senior inspector (primary), and an NZEI representative. This system is strong where the secondary appointments machinery is weak, and vice versa: the education board's appointments committee can be relied on carefully to evaluate the merits of individual applicants, but it cannot so easily relate their special interests and capabilities to the specific needs and circumstances of the school. For this reason, and *to give the school committee as much scope as possible to influence the development of its schools, we recommend that steps be taken to increase the involvement of school committees in the making of senior appointments.* It would clearly be desirable to do so whenever a principal is appointed, since few decisions are of such importance to a school. When the position of principal of a primary or intermediate school falls vacant, its school committee should at least be given the right to submit through the education board to its appointments committee a statement of its views on the principalship, indicating any special needs, problems, or circumstances in the school which should be borne in mind when the appointment is being made. We believe, however, that education boards should go further, and invite the school committee chairman (or possibly his nominee) to sit with the appointments committee, with a right to speak but not to vote. Where this is impracticable for reasons of distance or otherwise, other forms of consultation (for example, by telephone) might be devised. Instead of proposing uniform arrangements we recommend that the Central Advisory Committee be asked to advise the education boards about the suitability of various forms of consultation. We see no harm in some variation in practice, and see value in pilot schemes to test experimental procedures within districts. In the light of the results of involving school committees in the appointment of principals, the practicability and desirability of using such procedures for other senior appointments can in due course be appraised. But whether or not such extensions prove to be possible, *we believe that primary and intermediate school principals should be given a greater opportunity, through closer consultation, to influence the selection of their staff. We recommend that the Central Advisory Committee and the education boards give attention to this matter too.*

Other Increased Responsibilities for School Committees

3.23 Under the provisions of the school committees incidentals grant and the new equipment scheme, the responsibility of the school committee for preparing an annual budget of expenditure for educational as well as administrative purposes has increased in recent years. The school committee, in close consultation with the principal, has to establish its priorities in such areas as the upgrading of educational equipment, its maintenance, and the provision of classroom materials, as well as for current housekeeping expenditures.

3.24 We welcome this trend, and *look forward to further increases in the responsibilities of school committees. For the most part these must come, we believe, from greater delegations by education boards.* For example, we understand that one or two education boards allocate to each school committee a small annual grant from the board's maintenance fund, so that some minor repairs can be done promptly and without prior approval from the board. This illustrates one possible mode of increased delegation. *We recommend that education boards, in conjunction with district school committee associations, explore ways of increasing the responsibilities of school committees, thereby enabling the education boards to play a more supervisory, supportive, and less executive role.*

The School Committee/Board of Governors and the Parent-Teacher Association

3.25 One of the more striking (and some would say, more regrettable) traditions of the New Zealand educational system is the amount of attention which local representatives—on school committees, boards of governors, and education boards—devote to the physical fabric of schools compared to the activities which go on within them. At one time teachers were concerned to confine "professional" matters to the jurisdiction of professionals, namely of themselves and the professional officers of the department. Since the 1940s a contrary trend has been strongly evident, towards a closer collaboration between teachers and parents in the interests of the education and welfare of the child; but the institutional form of this collaboration—the parent-teacher association which is customarily found in each school—has grown up alongside the school committee or board of governors, which has continued (till recently, at least) with its traditional concerns.

3.26 During the past decade this situation has begun to change, in two significant and encouraging ways. First, the governing body (school committee or board of governors) has tended to see its

responsibilities in the wider perspective of educational needs and programmes. Second, parent-teacher groups have sought ways of co-operating more closely with governing bodies. In the Wellington district, for example, school committees and parent-teacher associations have formed a united district organisation, and in some primary schools a combined organisation ("school council" or "school association") has been formed to carry out, often through specialised subcommittees, the functions previously performed by the school committee and the PTA.

3.27 In welcoming these developments we hasten to add that we are not to be interpreted as recommending any specific form of liaison or unification, such as a "school association". What will work successfully in a given school will depend on the history of relationships between its PTA and its governing body, and on the personalities of those who are currently in leading positions in those organisations. There may well be a variety of viable and satisfactory patterns of relationship. We have no hesitation, however, in asserting that wherever a PTA continues to exist separate from the school's governing body, close liaison is needed, for several reasons. The governing body needs feedback from the parents in the PTA about the school's functioning; it also needs, when planning and budgeting an awareness of the school's educational programmes and proposals such as emerges in PTA activities; and it needs the support and understanding of the local community for its schemes of development, which can more readily be achieved through the PTA network than in any other way. Equally, the PTA needs to work through the governing body if it is to influence the policy, the programmes, and the plans of the school. Accordingly, wherever a PTA exists separately from the school's governing body, it should be entitled to at least one representative on that body. A recommendation to that end is contained in the following section.

The Composition and Election of School Committees

3.28 At present, school committees are elected biennially at a meeting of householders; they range in size from five to nine members depending on the number of pupils in the school, and the principal attends school committee meetings as of right, though he is not a voting member. We favour the principle of election by those householders who are interested enough in their local school to attend a general meeting. It must, however, be recognised that the biennial meetings are often not well attended. To improve this situation *we recommend, first, that an election of school committee members be held every year, instead of in alternate years, and that it be held in conjunction with the annual general meeting of the PTA where one exists, any house-*

holder (as at present) being entitled to vote in that election. Second, we recommend that only half of the seats on the school committee be filled at each such election, thereby retaining a 2-year term of office for its members, in the interest of continuity. The relatively wide interest among parents in PTA meetings should ensure a reasonable turnout, and we also consider that an annual election, together with an annual review of the work of the school, should increase public interest in the activities of the school committee. It is also appropriate since many families move in and out of the district each year. (In intermediate schools, it should be remembered, half of the pupils move out of the school each year, making way for a similar number of new pupils.)

3.29 *It is of course indispensable that the principal should continue to attend school committee meetings. We have given careful thought to the question whether he should be a full member with voting rights, but have concluded on balance that most principals will find their position stronger if they maintain a distinct identity as the chief professional adviser of the committee and not as one voting member among several.*

3.30 Some school committees have experimented with having a representative of the school's staff, in addition to the principal, attend their meetings with full rights of participation in discussion, though not of voting. The arrangement appears to have worked very satisfactorily, giving the staff a wider opportunity to express their views to the committee and a better insight into its operations. The need for this is probably less, however, in the case of the smallest schools. *We therefore recommend that, in any school with more than 100 pupils on the roll, the teaching staff be entitled to elect each year 1 of their number to be a non-voting member of the school committee.*

3.31 We have already stressed the need for a close liaison between the PTA and the school committee. As a step towards this *we recommend that the PTA be entitled to elect each year from its members (that is, from any parent of a pupil on the school roll, or any teacher on the school's staff, who has chosen to join the association) one representative to be an additional member of the school committee with full voting rights.* We are, however, anxious not to narrow the opportunities for even closer liaison, hence *we further recommend that the general meeting of householders at its (annual) election of school committee members be empowered to decide that the PTA be entitled to elect that year more than one such additional member of the school committee, and to specify the number which it may elect, up to a maximum of one less than the number of school committee members elected by the householders.*

3.32 *To prevent the school committee becoming excessively large, we further recommend that the number of members elected by the householders be one less than at present.* (The minimum size of a committee would

not change, since at least one member is to be elected by the PTA.' A school with more than 200 pupils would thus have a committee consisting of:

Eight members elected by householders (four elected each year);

At least one and not more than seven members elected by the PTA;

The principal, without voting rights;

One staff representative, without voting rights.

It is, of course, possible, and indeed likely, that among the members elected by the PTA will be one or more members of the school's staff, and some people may consider it anomalous that they should have voting rights whereas the principal and the staff representative do not. We do not find it so. Their right to voting membership would be a consequence not of their membership of or selection by the school staff, but of their being chosen by the PTA, and the situation would only be anomalous in our view if they were debarred from voting whereas a parent representing the PTA was not.

The Composition of Boards of Governors

3.33 It will be recalled that *boards of governors have traditionally consisted in part of members nominated by a variety of authorities and in part of representatives elected by the parents of pupils in the school, with some power to co-opt. The trend in recent years has generally been towards reducing the proportion of nominated members and increasing that of parents' representatives. This trend is consistent with the principle which we have already endorsed, of developing strong links between the school and the local community, hence we recommend its application to those schools whose governing bodies are constituted under special Acts or regulations which have not yet been amended.*

3.34 The need for close liaison between the board of governors and the PTA is as strong in the secondary as in the primary or intermediate school. However, the provisions for parents' representatives and the power to co-opt make possible effective forms of liaison without the statutory changes which we have recommended for primary and intermediate schools.

3.35 We do, however, recommend two other changes. First, as in the case of primary and intermediate schools, and for the same reasons, *there should be a representative of the teaching staff, in addition to the principal, at meetings of the governing body. It would be consistent with the arguments set out in the previous section if the full-time teaching staff of each secondary school were empowered to elect each year one of their number to be*

a non-voting member of the board of governors, and we recommend accordingly. We do not, however, favour student representation on the board, believing that relationships between pupils and the school can better be improved in other ways.

3.36 Second, the education board has traditionally nominated a representative on each board of governors within its district. However, the growth in the number of boards of governors has in many areas made it impossible for education board members themselves to provide an effective link. *Indeed, we believe that the time has come when individual education board members should be restricted to representing the board on one board of governors. We recommend that each education board adopt this as a standard practice, and that when it consequently needs to appoint as its representative on a board of governors a person other than one of its own members, it select the chairman or some other leading member of a local primary or intermediate school committee.* We are aware that this is occasionally done at present. It has the advantages of linking school committees more closely both with education boards and with the nearby secondary school.

3.37 We have considered, as an alternative to the nomination by the education board of a member on a board of governors, the election of a member by the school committees of the local primary and intermediate schools whose pupils normally proceed to the secondary school(s) governed by that board. It might well be that in some localities this arrangement would be preferable, but in others it might be difficult both to introduce and to maintain. Accordingly, we cannot recommend it as a standard pattern, but mention it in case after public discussion some education boards might decide to delegate thus their power of nominating a member to boards of governors in certain appropriate localities.

Education Boards

3.38 When discussing school committees and boards of governors, it was convenient to deal first with their powers and functions, and in the light of that analysis to consider their composition. In the present instance, however, we must turn the discussion on its head and consider first what the education boards should be—indeed, whether they should exist at all. Some publicity was attracted by a remit passed by the 1973 Labour Party Conference proposing that they be abolished, and their functions performed by regional offices of the department. It is ironic that such a suggestion should have gained support at a time when reports on educational administration in New South Wales and Canberra were proposing the adoption of a decentralised system of control similar to New Zealand's.

3.39 The education board is, in essence, a local authority, elected by school committees to provide certain services and to perform certain priority-determining functions which school committees themselves are too localised and administratively not strong enough to handle. The board's autonomy is limited, mainly because its funds are provided by the Central Government which consequently lays down standards and guidelines which it must observe. Nevertheless, it does exercise a real discretion, for instance in deciding (within the limits of its financial allocation) what new schools or enlargements or replacements of schools should be included in its building programme, what their design should be, how its funds for maintenance and minor capital works should be allocated, and so on. Believing as we do in leaving as much discretion and initiative to each locality as possible, we are opposed in principle to transferring such responsibilities as these to agencies of the Central Government.

3.40 But if they are to remain with a local authority, the only alternative to some type of education board would be to entrust them (as in the United Kingdom) to large territorial authorities. If there were a nationwide system of regional government in existence, this might be a realistic possibility, and one could discuss the merits of special-purpose versus general-purpose authorities as they relate to educational administration. At the present time, however, such a discussion would be premature. We have as yet only one multi-purpose regional authority, in Auckland, and even if others are created (as seems likely) the time is far distant when they will be firmly enough established over the whole country to be seriously considered as possible instruments of educational administration.

3.41 We thus find ourselves with no suitable alternative to the system of education boards, modified as we shall shortly suggest. Nor are we in any way apologetic about this conclusion, as some of their critics would expect us to be. Certainly, education boards vary in quality from one district to another: but that is inevitable in any system of local government. There is nothing in the evidence which we have received to indicate that in areas where they are relatively weak, their critics are debarred from seeking selection as education board members and from improving their performance; and we are satisfied that in the system as a whole there is real strength.

The Composition and Election of Education Boards

3.42 The main alternative to the present system of election by school committee members would be election by the general public as in the case, for example, of hospital boards. This possibility was

criticised in several submissions which we received, on the grounds that it would lead to the contesting by political parties of education board elections, a prospect which inspired no enthusiasm. Those who urged direct public election maintained that it would result in the return of better-qualified members; but there is no evidence to support that conclusion, and some reason indeed to doubt it. *The main advantages of the present system are, in our view, that those who secure election have nearly all served on school committees and hence have a recent first-hand knowledge of conditions in the schools, and that those who are entitled to elect them can be presumed not only to have a higher than average interest in education generally, but to be in a position to assess the competence or otherwise of the board member for their ward and hence to cast a more informed vote than could be expected from the general public. This opportunity to judge the performance of an individual board member is moreover a justification for the ward system in education board elections, which we are, on that account, in favour of retaining.* Finally, the present mode of election symbolises the fact that the education board is the school committees of the district acting collectively for certain common purposes. This relationship is, in our view, a valuable one, and needs rather to be strenghtened than impaired.

3.43 *The evidence, and our reasoning, thus lead us to endorse the present method of electing education board members.* Members of education boards and school committees should, however, take as a warning signal the vote at the 1973 Labour Party Conference. Successfully to justify their continued existence, education boards must take steps to cultivate among school committees and the local communities they represent an awareness that the board represents the committees of the individual primary and intermediate schools, and is responsive to their needs and receptive to their ideas. The ward member must, for instance, take care to meet his school committees regularly, and not only when he is seeking re-election. District associations of school committees must also recognise that it is in the interests of the boards as well as of themselves that ward elections should be contested by well-qualified candidates, that in the absence of a party system the process of recruiting and nominating such candidates is liable to be haphazard, and hence, that members of the district association may well have some responsibility to see that appropriate people are encouraged to stand. To sum up: what the system needs is not drastic surgery but a tonic to give it greater vitality, and the most effective tonic would be more keenly-contested elections.

3.44 *Among the possible minor changes in the composition of education boards are the addition of some nominated or co-opted members.* There may be, for example, some advantage in having a teachers' representative

on the board, and some discussions have been held to that end. While we have no objections to this, the case for it seems much less strong than the case for having such a representative on the school committee or board of governors. Given that the education board receives professional advice from the district senior inspector (primary), there seems no obvious unity of interest among the teachers in its district in most of its priority-determining business; and where such an interest exists (for example, on some architectural matters, or in commenting on items of school equipment) it could most effectively be represented on the relevant committee of the board (as in the case of the appointments committee at present) rather than on the board itself. Teachers are, in any case, able to maintain close contact with the board and its staff, on matters of common interest, through the NZEI Committee of Branches.

3.45 However, we note that most education boards have recently co-opted a (non-voting) teacher representative, and we cannot see that the public interest is thereby jeopardised in any way. Indeed, *we suggest that education boards be formally given power to co-opt a limited number of full members (say, two or three)*. In this way a board might add to its ranks not only a teachers' representative but also a representative of the relevant regional authority, if and when such authorities become widely established.

3.46 The question of the representation of secondary boards of governors on education boards will be considered later in this chapter.

The Powers and Activities of Education Boards

3.47 We shall also reserve for later discussions the question of the possible servicing by education boards of secondary schools, and we have already proposed in an earlier section that education boards take steps, through closer consultation or through delegation, to increase the effectiveness of primary and intermediate school committees. *Otherwise, we recommend that education boards retain their present powers and functions, and that the Minister of Education consider increasing their responsibilities in* the following areas:

(a) *Kindergartens*—The education board could provide for the kindergarten associations within its district, working drawings and specifications for new buildings and extensions to kindergartens (in accordance with codes laid down by the department after consultation with the Kindergarten Teachers Association and the Kindergarten Union) and could call tenders, arrange contracts, and supervise the erection of those buildings.

It could service the payroll of kindergarten associations, supervise the conditions under which relieving teachers are appointed, administer such matters as leave for kindergarten teachers, and deal with individual kindergarten teachers on all matters relating to the administration of their conditions of service. It could compile the kindergarten term returns, balance sheets, statements of accounts, and reports to the department, and could channel State grants to the individual kindergartens and to kindergarten associations.

None of these suggested functions are intended to interfere with the direct relationship between the individual kindergarten teacher and the kindergarten association as employing authority, nor should they be permitted to do so.

(b) *Play centres*—The education board could receive and compile the term returns (on which statistics and departmental grants are based), could submit the resulting claims to the department and channel the State grants to play centres and play centre associations. This work is at present done in the department's regional offices, but as pre-school advisers are being based on board districts instead of the regional offices it would make for closer liaison if it were done by board staff. Again, no interference in the work of the play centre associations is envisaged.

(c) *The Department of Education*—The education board could provide accommodation and administrative servicing, under conditions agreed between the department and the board, for such departmental officers located in its district as inspectors of schools, departmental advisers (including pre-school advisers), and perhaps even National Library Service staff such as organising school librarians.

(d) *Registered Private Schools*—At present the education board administers for such schools, transport services, and the equipment scheme. It could play a bigger part in administering other forms of public assistance received by them, and in providing a wider range of services.

(e) *New Zealand League for the Hard of Hearing*—The branches of this league employ over 20 teachers for whose salaries, and certain other expenses, the department is responsible. Education boards might take over the payment of these salaries and grants.

The Number and Size of Education Board Districts

3.48 *There is scope, we believe, for considerable variation in the size and population of education board districts.* However, it must be recognised that extreme cases may present problems calling for action. Above a certain size, a board member's ward will cover too many

schools and too extensive a district for effective representation. Below a certain size, the board will be unable economically to employ a staff large and diverse enough to provide the full range of services needed to support the work of the schools.

3.49 Most board districts are still based on the provinces which were abolished almost a century ago. The South Auckland district was divided off from the Auckland district in 1954, and there have been a few boundary adjustments elsewhere, but compared with most branches of organisation and administration in this country the system has exhibited remarkable stability. The Currie Commission (1962) suggested some changes, and recommended that an education board boundary commission be established to conduct a detailed examination; the creation of three new boards, and the transfer of Marlborough schools to the Nelson board, were among the resulting recommendations, but little was done, and the boundary commission ceased to exist.

3.50 During the past decade, rapid growth has continued in the Auckland board district: the number of primary pupils there has for some years been greater than in the whole of the South Island; it increased from about 90,000 to about 130,000 in the decade 1962–72, with a resulting increase in the number of primary and intermediate schools by more than 100 to reach 463. The Auckland board has for many years shown a gratifying readiness to consider boundary changes, supporting the inquiries which led to the establishment of the South Auckland board and providing essential services during the transition period. *The Auckland board now believes that Northland (about 150 schools) is ripe for separation; and as a transitional measure it is enlarging its office in Whangarei to enable it to administer primary educational services in Northland, delegating power for that purpose to an executive committee of local board members which is to supervise the work of the Whangarei office. We welcome this move, and recommend that it be regarded as the initial step towards the early creation of a separate Northland education board.*

3.51 Even after the separation of Northland, the Auckland board district will still be one of the largest and most rapidly growing, and further division may in due course become necessary, as the Auckland board itself recognises. However, for purposes of planning it would, in our view, be undesirable to reduce its district to less than that of the Auckland Regional Authority, if this could possibly be avoided.

3.52 The South Auckland district (403 schools) is the second largest, and the Currie Commission foresaw a need to establish a separate board for the Bay of Plenty. However, the establishment at

Rotorua of an office of the South Auckland board seems to have removed many of the previous difficulties, and *we recommend no change for the time being, though further growth may in due course necessitate a division of the South Auckland district.*

3.53 At the other extreme we have Nelson (63 schools), Taranaki (114), and Southland (126). In considering the minimum size for economic provision of the range of services needed, allowance must be made not only for present board activities but also for prospective changes. Several suggestions we make in this report imply some increase in the volume of work handled by board staff, hence the smaller boards should become more viable, other things being equal. On the other hand, a district should be large enough to justify the provision of a team of inspectors and advisers, and a range of specialist services, wide enough to meet the needs of teachers, children, and parents in a reasonably efficient and economic fashion. The smaller districts need to be considered from this standpoint; our impression is that Taranaki and Southland might be viable with a not unreasonable amount of borrowing of specialists from other districts, but that Nelson falls well below the minimum size required to satisfy these professional criteria. Accordingly, we must suggest that once again consideration be given to establishing a combined Nelson/Marlborough education district, aware though we are that local interests succeeded in defeating a similar proposal when it was recommended by the Education Board Boundary Commission a decade ago.

3.54 A related question which can conveniently be dealt with at this point is the review of ward boundaries. It has been suggested to us that these have sometimes changed more slowly than they should have done in view of shifts in population, hence in the distribution of schools and of pupils. The initial responsibility for maintaining a suitable pattern of wards, resulting in a reasonably even distribution of the burdens of representation among all board members, should lie with the individual board. However, we recognise that inertia is sometimes difficult to overcome, and that a disinterested judgment is sometimes helpful in disputes over representation. Accordingly, *we suggest that the Education Boards Association* should keep an eye on this problem, and *should be prepared, when necessary, to set up a small committee of inquiry to investigate complaints about obsolete ward boundaries in a given district and to suggest remedies.*

District Organisation for Secondary Schools

3.55 As we have already made clear in an earlier section, we believe that secondary boards of governors are a valuable part of educational administration, and that they should retain their important powers such as the selecting of their staff.

3.56 This said, it is nevertheless a fact that secondary schools, like primary and intermediate schools, have only a limited administrative capacity because they lack a large and diverse administrative staff. This will remain true even if, as we hope, the Government gives effect to the recommendation of the March 1972 *Report on Secondary School Administration* (the "Bursars" Report) that an executive officer be added to the staffing establishment of the larger secondary schools, thereby relieving the existing administrative burden on their principals.

3.57 With a partial exception in the three areas (containing 26 schools) in which secondary schools councils have been established, the secondary schools lack an administrative agency at the district level which can provide economically the administrative services which are available to primary and intermediate schools through the officers of the education board. In some districts, many boards of governors have contracted with the education board for the supply of such services as payroll processing, the payment of accounts and preparation of financial records, and the provision of secretarial services for the board of governors. In other districts they have been reluctant to do so. To ensure the efficient payment of teachers' salaries, the Minister of Education has recently required all boards of governors (except those serviced by the Christchurch Secondary Schools Council) to arrange for their payrolls to be processed by the education board in their district, a decision which provoked protests from some of them.

3.58 This controversy is significant, in our view, only because it shows how little understanding there is of real problems and opportunities in secondary administration. To deprive a board of governors of the right to decide where its payroll processing is done is not a significant infringement of its responsibilities for school policy. Nor, for that matter, would be analogous arrangements for paying its bills, keeping its financial records, or even providing secretarial services for board meetings. To make an issue of principle out of these matters of routine administrative servicing is to grasp at the shadows of power and to ignore its substance.

3.59 To identify that substance, we must ask what it is which gives the education board its power. The answer lies, not in the routine servicing which it performs for school committees, but in its activities of planning and programming, notably of fixing the priorities for buildings and maintenance, of deciding where new schools shall be built and of what design they shall be; and of assessing the needs of its schools and allocating its resources accordingly. In the field of secondary education, the substance of

that power is in the hands of the department, which makes the equivalent decisions. Even in Christchurch, where the largest and most developed of the secondary schools councils exists, it has for the most part confined its activities to routine administrative servicing and has been slow to grapple with certain matters of district policy.

3.60 The lack of representative district organisations to settle the priorities for secondary education which the education board settles for primary and intermediate education is hardly recognised in the submissions which we have received. It nevertheless represents, in our view, the most obvious gap in the system of local control over education. This has consequences not only for the secondary schools, for whom decisions are made in what is in many cases a remote regional office of the department; it has consequences for the department, too, since the load which it could once handle without too much difficulty when there were only a few secondary schools becomes increasingly burdensome as the total rises. As recently as 1945 there were only 69 State secondary schools (excluding district high schools) in this country; by 1972 the total had risen to 223, over 50 of which had been opened in the previous decade.

3.61 If secondary boards of governors are really interested in power and autonomy, in running their own show in their own way to the greatest possible extent, then some form of secondary representative council at the district level, supported by a substantial and diverse administrative staff, is obviously needed. If, on the other hand, each board is concerned only with the management of its own school and with improving the relationships between its staff, its pupils, their parents, and the local community, then it needs only limited powers and cannot reasonably complain if some other authority makes the decisions and performs the tasks which are beyond the perspectives of the administrative capacity of an individual school.

3.62 As we have said, the potentialities of district organisation in secondary education are hardly recognised in the submissions which we received. On the other hand, it is clear that under the pressure of events, many boards of governors are now beginning to think seriously about a district level of organisation, under secondary schools councils. Accordingly, we have worked out some alternative patterns, each of which appears to meet the needs of the situation, among which a choice could be made; and we envisage that different patterns might prove acceptable in different parts of the country. There is no reason, in our view, for insisting on uniformity.

3.63 Before sketching these organisation patterns, we must make it clear that each of them involves some change from the present situation, in the form of common servicing, a common

system of district administration, and a unified inspectorate. We devote the final section of this chapter to discussing the unified inspectorate, but must deal here with the other common features.

3.64 It is an obvious deficiency of the present system that property supervisors are duplicated throughout the country, one set being employed by education boards to inspect primary and intermediate school buildings and assess their maintenance needs, and another set working out of the regional offices of the department to perform the same functions for secondary schools. Each of the alternative patterns which we propose provides for a single set of property supervisors at district level. Extending the argument further, it would similarly be undesirable, supposing that secondary boards were to establish their own representative district councils, that they in turn should employ a separate team of property supervisors, or for that matter establish a separate planning office with its own maps and its own architects and draughtsmen, or a separate finance office with its own accountants and accounting machines, and so on. *What is needed is a single, multi-purpose administrative machine at the district level, potentially available to a variety of users (pre-school and secondary as well as primary).*

3.65 Given that an administrative machine of this kind exists, it should be used to perform any routine processes for a secondary school which it can handle more efficiently and economically than can the school's own administration, regardless of whether or not secondary boards decide to establish their own representative district councils. Such councils, if they were created, would be concerned primarily with matters of district policy and priorities, not with routine servicing, though they should be entitled to share in the management of the district administration. Similarly, the individual board of governors is concerned with policy and priorities at the level of the individual school. To have the school payroll processed in a district office impairs neither of these concerns, and is, in our view, an obviously sensible arrangement, in view of the complexities of payroll administration. Similarly, *we believe that a district office is better equipped to handle the payment of accounts and the regular preparation of financial statements and balance sheets than is the secondary school's own administration, and suggest that it take over those functions, too, on a contract basis, except where a secondary schools council already exists which is efficiently and economically performing them.*

3.66 Secretarial servicing for the board of governors is, however, a less clear-cut issue. *The principal should not, in our view, serve as secretary to his board of governors,* since this is a clerical and not a professional function. We recognise that in some areas the educa-

tion board or (where one exists) the secondary schools council provides this service effectively. In more remote and sparsely settled localities, however, this is unlikely to be economic. Boards of governors of secondary schools on the West Coast could hardly be serviced from Christchurch. In some cases a local sub-office of the district administration may provide a solution. In some schools where a bursar or executive officer is appointed, he might, in our view, be the most appropriate secretary even though we acknowledge that his main responsibility must be to assist the principal, not the board. The problem admits of no universal solution, hence we can recommend no more than that the district office should provide this service when it is practicable and economic for it to do so.

3.67 A district office might well take over not only some of the routine servicing for which boards of governors have hitherto had to make provision, but also some of the work so far done in the department's regional offices. Property inspection is an example already mentioned, which might well include not only the assessment of maintenance needs but also the supervision of maintenance works for secondary as well as for primary schools; such supervision could more effectively be provided from 10 or 11 than from only 3 centres. Again, the transfer to district offices of secondary school payroll servicing makes it appropriate to give them also the responsibility for certain related "conditions of service" matters for secondary teachers, at present handled by the teachers division in the regional offices. Similarly, the district office could handle some of the work of the stores division in the regional offices, in supplying equipment and stores to secondary schools, though we recognise that it would be convenient for that division to retain certain functions, for instance in bulk purchasing. Generally, the aim should be to devolve executive authority wherever possible to the district or to the individual school, leaving the department in a predominantly supervisory and co-ordinating role.

3.68 We turn now to the problem of who should control this district administrative machine. This is a question to which several answers are at least theoretically possible. The main alternative patterns of district organisation which we would regard as acceptable are sketched in the following four sections.

Pattern 1: The Unified District Council

3.69 If history did not exist, and we were called on to invent a new administrative framework for sub-tertiary education, it would be sensible to create a set of district education authorities, each

consisting of a council and its supporting staff, as well as a central department of education and separate governing bodies for the individual schools. The district staff would,consist in the main, of a unified inspectorate, together with sections dealing with routine district servicing, planning and design, and property supervision. The district council would consist, in the main, of representatives, each elected by the governing bodies of all the institutions—pre-school, primary, intermediate, secondary—within its ward.

3.70 Among the funds channelled to the council would be a unified grant for capital works, and a unified grant for maintenance. The council, advised by its planning and design staff, its property supervisors and its inspectors, would thus be responsible for deciding how much of its capital grant to spend on new kindergartens and how much on the replacement of obsolete primary schools, and whether the maintenance needs of this intermediate school were more pressing than those of that secondary school. The council would be the controlling authority for primary and intermediate schools, but pre-school organisations and secondary schools would continue to appoint their own teachers.

3.71 It would not be administratively difficult to introduce an organisation of this kind; all that is needed is to replace the education boards with district education councils, transfer to them the board-like functions performed for secondary education by the department, strengthen the boards' staff to perform their present functions for a wider range of schools, and unify the inspectorate. It would, however, be politically difficult. Only in Southland, and to a limited extent in Northland, have we discerned any substantial willingness to contemplate such an abrupt change from past traditions and present practices. The unknown factor, which will lead many to feel that such a change would be a leap in the dark, lies in the method of electing the council. Who can tell what would be the interests and predispositions of a council member elected by a mixed constituency of pre-school, primary, intermediate, and secondary governing bodies?

Pattern 2: The Bipartite District Council

3.72 To allay the fears of those who are reluctant to take such a leap in the dark, representation on the council could be sectional—so many councillors to be elected by pre-school authorities, so many by school committees, and so many by boards of governors. In all other respects, patterns 1 and 2 are identical. The main difficulty in this case would lie in devising an acceptable basis of representation. In 1972, for every child in pre-school there were 4 in State secondary schools and 10 in State primary or intermediate schools, for the

country as a whole. If pupil numbers are to be the basis of representation, pre-school and secondary representatives would clearly be permanently in a small minority. To many members of boards of governors, such a change would seem not so much a leap in the dark as a leap off a cliff; and the drop would be even further if representation were by schools and not by pupil numbers. Given this fear on the part of secondary governing bodies of being swamped by a preponderance of school committee repreeatatives, the only acceptable version of pattern 2 might be an equal number of primary/intermediate and secondary representatives on the council, with an independent chairman. (This would entail excluding kindergartens and play centres from the priority-determining activities of the council, though the district authority might well provide routine services for pre-school authorities.) Whether education boards would be happy to extinguish themselves in return for equal representation on the resulting councils must be a matter for speculation.

Pattern 3: Separate District Authorities

3.73 To take the heat out of the representation issue, pattern 2 could be amended by substituting for the unified grant for capital works and the unified grant for maintenance, separate grants in each case for the primary/intermediate and the secondary schools (and possibly others for pre-schools). The priority-determining work of the council could then be delegated to committees, one for instance consisting of the school committee representatives and another of representatives of boards of governors. Indeed, the situation can better be visualised by thinking not of a unitary council, but rather of separate bodies, one being the education board, another a secondary schools council for the same district, and a third the district pre-school committee, which establish a joint management committee for the purpose of supervising the administrative machine which serves each of them. The pre-school authorities could be represented on such a body, since equality of primary and secondary representation would not be of vital importance so long as the secondary representatives knew that they had the exclusive right to fix their own priorities for capital works and maintenance within their own section of the budget.

3.74 In some parts of the country it would doubtless take time to erode old suspicions, and to learn how to supervise successfully the common administrative machinery. Pattern 3 might well prove acceptable to the interested organisations, however, since the only body which would lose any power is the department. Moreover, it seems realistic to hope that once pre-school, primary, and secondary representatives have been drawn together for these limited purposes

and have become accustomed to using the same board room and being advised by the same officers, they may well see advantages in setting up joint committees to deal with certain common problems. As confidence increased, an element might even be incorporated in the budget without earmarking, in the hope that it might be allocated on the basis of acknowledged need rather than of sectional advantage.

Pattern 4: The Education Board as District Authority

3.75 If none of the patterns previously sketched proved acceptable in a given district (and it will be recalled that we favour a variety of patterns through the country if districts have different preferences), the minimum change which we would regard as acceptable would be to expand the present education board administration into a district administration of the type envisaged, by transferring to it the property supervision staff from the department's regional offices, by making it responsible for the routine servicing of pre-school and secondary institutions, and by providing it with a unified inspectorate. The department's regional office would, however, continue to make the decisions about secondary school maintenance priorities (using the reports supplied by the district property supervisors), and about the siting and design of new secondary schools and other secondary capital works.

3.76 In view of the range of service functions provided by the district administration for pre-school and secondary institutions, it would be appropriate for the boards of governors in the district to elect (say) two representatives to the education board, and for the district pre-school associations to do the same. These representatives could form a subcommittee to oversee the servicing of their institutions by the board's staff, and might help to ventilate problems of common concern to the pre-school, primary, and secondary sectors.

Final Comments on the Alternative Patterns

3.77 In concluding this portion of our discussion, we must stress that we do not regard the continuance of the present situation as an acceptable variant. Each of the patterns sketched differs from the present one in that it contains a single multi-purpose administration at the district level, providing a range of services to all pre-tertiary educational institutions in such fields as accounting and record-keeping, payroll servicing, administration of teachers' conditions of service, property inspection and supervision of maintenance works, supply of stores and equipment, architectural

services, and so on. It so happens that there is already in each district an administration experienced in these fields, namely the staff of the education board, and it would be wasteful to duplicate it. (Indeed, where duplication currently exists between the regional office and the board's office it should be eliminated by transferring operations as far as possible to the board's office and giving the region an auditing and supervising role.) What is needed is thus—to give the board's office the right and the responsibility to service pre-school and secondary institutions, as well as the primary and intermediate schools which are within the board's present jurisdiction.

3.78 This does not mean transferring pre-school and secondary institutions to education board control, for two reasons. First, the services which the board's office would provide in no way impair the authority of the governing body in determining policy for its own pre-school centre or secondary school. Second, it is at the discretion of the pre-school and secondary authorities within the district whether the office which provides these services continues to be managed by the education board. That would happen only if they opted for pattern 4; but the choice is open to them to enter into partnership with the representatives of the primary and intermediate schools to control the district office by selecting one of the other patterns. In making that decision, supervision of the machinery for administrative servicing is by no means the only consideration, and indeed, in our view, is not the most important one. The key question is rather whether the governing bodies of secondary schools would prefer to set up their own representative authority at district level to make the decisions about policies and priorities at present made by the department. If they chose to do so, the district office would become much more than a servicing agency; it would also be the source of information and advice which such a representative authority would need in formulating policies and determining priorities.

3.79 Finally, we must repeat that the choice should be made separately within each district. There is no reason why a single uniform pattern should be adopted throughout the country. We should also add that we do not see the alternatives as stages in an evolutionary process, with all districts ultimately ending up with the same pattern.

A Unified Inspectorate

3.80 One of our major concerns throughout this report has been to promote and strengthen, where possible, the continuity of the educational process. Early in this chapter we suggested that this

was to be sought through improved professional liaison rather than through changing the structure of school government. We regard as crucial to this improvement in professional liaison the unification of the field inspectorate. This has accordingly been a common feature of all the alternative patterns of district organisation which we have outlined.

3.81 We think of the inspectorate being unified both operationally, in the sense that the hitherto separate primary and secondary inspectorates would work out of (and be serviced by) the same district office, often in teams; and functionally, since the inspectors individually and in their teams would be concerned with the excellence of the process of education as a whole within their district, not just with schools of a specific type. We shall have more to say in chapter 7 about the structure of the inspectorate.

3.82 Our reason for advocating this unification is quite simple. There are many forces within the education system which are resistant to change, specially when there is a move to bring the primary and secondary elements closer together. *We consider that the organisation of primary and secondary education into two self-contained structures is quite indefensible whether on professional or on social grounds.* Its only justification is to be found in the early history of the emerging nation, and its survival is an unhappy witness to the innate conservatism of the education process and to the tenacity with which sectional and vested interests, both professional and institutional can withstand the needs and the spirit of the times.

3.83 In consequence the department remains the only agency capable of bridging the gulf between the two levels. If, however, it is to achieve this, a direction in which it has been moving, for instance, in its work of curriculum reform, it must not only reshape its own internal administrative structure, which indeed it is in process of doing (see chapter 7), but make this reform manifest by the unification of its own professional field services into one school inspectorate well designed to give the maximum professional support to all levels of pre-tertiary education.

Chapter 4 SECONDARY TO TERTIARY

Introduction

4.1 In the preceding chapter we considered the organisation of the school system. In the next, we shall examine the university, technical institute, and teachers college systems, and the relationships between them. But before doing so, we must pause to recognise that there are problems which may be overlooked if attention is thus confined to existing institutions, and that there are proposals for meeting them which do not fit neatly into either the "secondary" or the "tertiary" category.

Nature of Current Problems

4.2 Behind these problems lie certain trends which must first be identified. Once primary education was virtually universal but secondary education was limited, for the most part, to those intending to advance to university studies and/or professional employment. Subsequently, education as far as form 5 level became virtually universal, whilst those intending to matriculate went on to forms 6 and possibly 7. Within the past decade or more, an appreciable proportion of pupils have continued to form 6, and lately even to form 7, without intending to enter a university or otherwise to qualify themselves for professional employment. The number of pupils in forms 6 and 7 has more than doubled during the past decade. The statistics which we have looked at, relating to the late sixties and early seventies, suggest that little over half of those entering form 6 have subsequently qualified for admission to university, whilst barely a third of them have in fact enrolled at a university.

4.3 This suggests that a wider range of teaching may well be more appropriate nowadays for many students in forms 6 and 7 than the academic preparation needed by prospective matriculants. Yet such information as we have obtained about form 6 programmes indicates rather a continuing preoccupation with a narrow range of subjects—indeed, a range much narrower even than can be explained by University Entrance requirements. The figures for 1971, for example, show that most form 6 pupils followed University Entrance type courses, and that only a third of the permissible University Entrance subjects attracted any substantial number of enrolments; the several language options, together with art, music, economics, accountancy, applied maths, and technical drawing, do not seem to have figured in most pupils' programmes of study.

There are a number of possible reasons for this continuation in changed circumstances of traditional form 6 course patterns: conservatism in pupil attitudes, the influence of teachers and of parents, and supposed expectations of prospective employers, are a few which spring to mind. It is, however, probable that the constraints are to an important extent institutional—that in a given school, limitations of staffing, accommodation, timetabling, equipment, and the undesirability (on both economic and educational grounds) of very small classes, prevent the offering of more than a narrow range of course options to form 6 (and *a fortiori*, to form 7) pupils.

4.5 Such institutional limitations are specially likely in smaller secondary schools, hence in rural areas. The resulting inequality of educational opportunity for senior pupils between town and countryside is thus a further cause for concern.

4.6 The problems arising from the disposition of a higher proportion of pupils to enter the sixth and seventh forms interrelate with those arising from another and even more recent trend, identified (as it affects secondary principals) in the following extract from the "Bursars" Report:*

> "Ever-increasing numbers in the senior forms and the tendency for modern youth to question, and at times actively oppose, traditional authority have forced principals to consider new methods of school government, special conditions in the senior school, and new approaches in teaching techniques. In some of the larger centres student activist groups have been formed, and, even though these have in general been transitory and have affected only a minority of pupils, the subversive influences behind them have been a source of serious concern and worry to principals to the detriment of their other school work and their health.
>
> This same questioning of authority, the tremendous pressures brought upon teenagers, and a lessening, even at times an abrogation, of parental authority have unsettled pupils in their outlook and in their personal relationships. This, in turn, has magnified the time spent by principals in the counselling of pupils and in dealing with child welfare and police cases."

4.7 About the causes of these phenomena there will be a variety of views, involving for example the social climate, the mass media, affluence, and the imitation of university students in this country or overseas. We are fortunately not called on to provide a diagnosis, unless it is supposed that the disorders arise from defects in New Zealand's educational organisation and administration. Certainly the unrest has often been directed at aspects of school organisation, such as compulsory assembly, regulations governing appearance and behaviour, the disciplinary system, and participation in school

**Report on Secondary School Administration, March 1972*, p. 13.

government; but we suspect that these have been its occasions rather than its causes, and that the malaise lies deeper, since it appeared at about the same time in other countries whose schools had quite different regulations and systems of discipline. Accordingly, the problem (as it affects our inquiry) is not one of dealing with its causes but of attempting to abate its effects.

4.8 To do so *it may well be necessary, in our view, to draw a sharper dividing line between the senior and the more junior levels of secondary education than has yet been done, so as to recognise institutionally that many sixth and seventh formers feel themselves to have more in common with students in tertiary institutions than with children in forms 3 to 5.* There may indeed be valid educational reasons for drawing such a distinction. We note for instance that the document *Aims for New Zealand Education*, prepared for the Advisory Council on Educational Planning in 1972 and used as a working paper for the Educational Priorities Conference, identifies* the senior forms of the secondary school as a separate educational level with its own characteristic aims and tasks, among which it lists the following:

(a) The development of personal autonomy and responsibility.

(b) The fostering of intellectual and emotional independence from parents and other adults.

(c) The nurturing of the idealism and social consciousness typical of the young adult. . . .

(g) Opportunity to continue learning how to live and work with members of the opposite sex.

It thus concludes that the school environment should provide "that degree of freedom which students need to learn to handle the independence of adult life" and suggests that "accommodation for this level might be in a separate institution from that catering for the lower levels", or if not, that it be at least "clearly demarcated and provide markedly different facilities".

4.9 We justify this brief excursion into the terrain of the other working parties since it thus leads to organisational implications. To the extent that the analysis is accurate, *separate institutions (or at least separate facilities) may be both what sixth and seventh formers want, and what they need. One of the following conclusions would appear to follow. First, that within existing secondary schools there should be a more distinct upper school than is generally the case at present. Second, that there should be a greater overlap between secondary schools and tertiary institutions, so that secondary pupils can become tertiary students at whichever of several transfer points they feel*

*loc. cit., p. 31.

ready to accept the responsibilities of that status. Third, that an alternative mode of progression beyond form 5 be introduced, namely, the proposed community colleges. Or fourth, that forms 6 and 7 be detached from secondary schools and placed in a new form of institution which we shall call senior colleges. In the following sections we amplify these alternatives.

Stratified Secondary Schools

4.10 To establish within existing secondary schools a more distinct upper school is undoubtedly the easiest of the alternative paths to follow. Much could probably be done towards that end in many schools through changes in organisation, without the costs and delays which new buildings for new institutions would entail. Furthermore, the dislocative effects of a further change in locale for the many pupils who will already have been at separate primary and intermediate schools, as well as their current secondary school, would thereby be avoided. On the other hand, it is often easier to establish new patterns in new than in existing institutions, which tend to have an inertia of their own. Moreover, maintaining the present structure would perpetuate the problem previously noted of restricted course offerings in the upper school, except where (as among the private schools in Masterton) several schools co-operate to provide more diverse programmes.

Secondary/Tertiary Overlap

4.11 A limited overlap exists at present between secondary schools and universities, in that many pupils can choose whether to enter a university after form 6 or form 7. There seems little scope for extending this, and its effects are in any case confined to the minority of upper school pupils who enter a university. There is a larger overlap between the secondary schools and the technical institutes, but this would only provide a genuine choice for many upper school pupils if the technical institutes were to offer more general courses at the form 6 and form 7 level. Hitherto the energies of the technical institutes have been almost completely absorbed in expanding to meet the training needs of technicians and tradesmen, but it is by no means impossible that they might develop a range of courses (sciences, mathematics, languages, and economics are obvious starting points) which many students who would otherwise be in forms 6 and 7 might wish to take, either to round off their general education or in preparation for technical or university training. This is a possibility which should, we believe, be

borne in mind within the technical institutes. Apart from the fact that it might be of lower priority to them than the elaboration of their trades and technical programmes, there are two points which can be urged against it. One is that it is by no means a complete solution to the problems raised, since it would provide an overlap only in those centres in which technical institutes exist. The second, and more disturbing, is that by tending to reduce numbers in sixth and seventh forms it might have the effect of reducing still further the range of programmes available to those who remained in the upper school.

The Community College and the Upper School

4.12 With the recent publication by the department of its feasibility study *A Hawke's Bay Community College*, the shape which the proposed community colleges are likely to take has become clearer. It seems probable that they will be established in such secondary cities as Napier/Hastings, Whangarei, New Plymouth, Invercargill, and Rotorua, to serve their needs and those of the surrounding districts in two main ways: as small technical institutes, and as centres for adult education. (In New Plymouth and Invercargill the existing technical institute would presumably become the community college, by developing as a centre for adult education.) This conception combines two elements in the policy of the present Government, namely, an intention to increase the availability of continuing education, and a commitment to regional development in the sense of checking metropolitan drift by fostering activities in secondary centres of population. An important form of metropolitan drift is the gravitation of school-leavers to cities in which there is a university or technical institute; it will be noted that in none of the centres most likely to be given a community college is there a university.

4.13 We do not intend at this point to discuss the possible role of community colleges in adult education, since we shall be investigating that topic later, in our chapter on continuing education. Here we are concerned with the opportunities which they may offer to school-leavers, especially to those who would otherwise be in sixth or seventh forms. First we must say that we find nothing controversial in this respect in the proposals in the Hawke's Bay feasibility study. The logic underlying them seems to be that in districts in which the prospective demand for trades and technical courses is not yet quite sufficient to justify establishing a technical institute, it may be practicable to do so if certain other functions (such as those in adult education)

are also to be performed. This seems an unexceptionable approach, likely to provide more opportunities locally in perhaps half a dozen districts for school-leavers aiming at trades or technical qualifications. A community college of this type would however do no more to alleviate the upper school problems with which we are concerned in this chapter than technical institutes have done where they presently exist—less, indeed, than the larger technical institutes with their wider range of courses have done.

4.14 To have an impact on these upper school problems, community colleges would need to develop programmes of general education, such as have been envisaged in the occasional speculations, mainly from political quarters, about their undertaking form 7 and first-year university teaching. The Hawke's Bay feasibility study gives serious consideration to the possibility of a general transfer of seventh forms (about 250 pupils) from the State secondary schools in Hawke's Bay to the proposed community college at Taradale, but finally recommends that for the time being the college be limited to a servicing role, providing teaching (in Napier and Hastings or at Taradale, depending on enrolments and facilities) for such sixth and seventh form courses as the secondary schools are unable to offer. The reason for its rejecting the general transfer of form 7 teaching to Taradale in the initial stage of the college's existence is that the resulting 250 full-time students, and the staff teaching them, (about 20), could well outnumber the full-time students and staff on the vocational (that is, technical institute) side and give the new college "an over-strong academic emphasis to the detriment of the practical vocational courses". It accordingly recommends that the question of a general transfer of form 7 teaching be raised again after the college's other courses have become securely established.

4.15 This conclusion assumes that the most urgent need in Hawke's Bay is the introduction of trades and technical courses, and that upper school problems are of lower priority. That may well be so, in the specific case, but in considering the country as a whole the conclusion thus reached may not be generally applicable. Accordingly, without questioning the establishment at Taradale in the near future of the community college recommended in the feasibility study, we suggest that the question of providing general education of a sixth and seventh form nature at community colleges may still be an open one. However, we do not believe that it can properly be approached by dividing sixth from seventh forms, and catering for only the latter in community colleges. The arguments, both educational and psycho-sociological, for making separate provision for the upper school apply as much to form 6 as to form 7,

and we are perturbed by the dislocation which would result for many students in spending a single year at community college between leaving secondary school and entering a university. Moreover, it is clear that the development of community colleges in a number of provincial centres could at best provide a partial solution to what is essentially a national problem. Indeed, to introduce general courses at form 6 and form 7 level in community colleges would in our view make sense only if similar developments were occurring within technical institutes, that is, as part of a general programme for making widely available an alternative and overlapping pattern of teaching at this level. The prospective advantages and disadvantages of doing so we have already considered in the preceding section of this chapter. It remains only to add that, if the technical institutes and proposed community colleges are fearful that a mass influx of sixth and seventh formers for general education would "swamp (them) to the detriment of other essential tertiary purposes" (the phrase is from the Hawke's Bay feasibility study*), then more serious attention will need to be given to the proposal which we shall shortly consider for senior colleges.

The Community College and the University

4.16 If—but, in our view, only if—community colleges develop a wide range of sixth and seventh form courses, the question will arise of their also undertaking first-year university teaching. The main advantage of their doing so appears to be that students in provincial centres (though not necessarily in the outlying districts served by those centres) would thereby be enabled to postpone for a year their leaving home for university study. There are however some serious practical difficulties in the proposal, mainly relating to the range of subjects which could be offered and the costs of making the necessary provision for a relatively small number of students.

4.17 The Association of University Teachers has prepared some estimates relating to a possible community college at Whangarei, which illustrate the difficulties. In 1973 there enrolled at Auckland University 93 first-year students normally resident within 60 km of Whangarei. However, only 65 of them enrolled in arts and science courses, and it is not envisaged that community colleges would be able to offer university teaching outside the range of arts and science subjects. It is further estimated that about 20 of these chose to take at least one subject outside the scope of the secondary school curriculum, hence outside the range of courses for which a com-

*A Hawke's Bay Community College, p. 76.

munity college might be staffed for its sixth and seventh form teaching. Accordingly, the number of students wishing to take first-year university courses if they were offered at a Whangarei community college might be no greater than 40 or 50. For a group of this size it would be uneconomic to provide staff, library and laboratory facilities for any significant number of subjects; and to the extent that the range of subjects was further restricted, the number of students choosing to pursue a first-year university programme at Whangarei would tend to be still further reduced.

4.18 It will be seen that the proposal to undertake first-year university teaching in community colleges is quite different in its implications from the proposal to offer sixth and seventh form courses. In the latter case, the intention would be to group together pupils from the existing small sixth and seventh forms, and thereby to offer a wider range of courses than would otherwise be available to them, almost certainly at a lower cost per pupil. In the former case, it would be a matter of making available to some students a narrower range of courses than that available in a university, almost certainly at a higher cost per student.

4.19 The solution, we believe—and here we echo the conclusions of the Hawke's Bay feasibility study, which also investigates this problem—is that community colleges should not embark on university teaching in any systematic way, but that (whether or not they are involved in sixth and seventh form teaching) they should provide such support and facilities as they can for extramural university students. Massey University, which runs most of the extramural courses, already encourages such students in a given locality to form themselves into study circles, and in some cases (as for instance at Ardmore Teachers College, at Greenmeadows Seminary, and in Invercargill in conjunction with Otago University's Extension Department) these circles arrange for their own tutors. Such circles might well be based at community colleges, which in addition could probably arrange to make available library and laboratory facilities. The basic differences between this proposal and that previously discussed are that tuition would remain primarily the responsibility of Massey's Extramural Studies Department, and that the amount of on-the-spot support which the community college would provide might well vary from subject to subject and from year to year; such flexibility would not be possible if the community college took over the main instructional responsibilities. We recognise that administrative and financial problems (arising for instance from laboratory classes) are certain to occur in what may well become a complex triangular relationship between Massey's Extramural Studies Department, the extension department

of the relevant university, and the community college; but such widespread agreement is evident that community colleges could thus assist extramural students that we are confident that the details will be successfully worked out, if the system develops on the lines we suggest.

The Senior College

4.20 The final proposal to be considered for giving a more distinct identity to the upper school is to detach forms 6 and 7 from the existing secondary schools, and to place them in new institutions which we shall call senior colleges. In the largest secondary schools (notably, some of those in the main centres) this might be predominantly a matter of organisation, that is to say, of so allocating the buildings that a school (up to form 5) and a senior college would share the present site, each with its own administration and staffing. In other cases the essence of the proposal would be to group together (co-educationally) the sixth and seventh forms from a group of schools, so that the resulting college could economically provide an appreciably wider range of courses than is presently possible. In some such cases, appropriate facilities would undoubtedly be needed for boarders. It is central to the concept of such a senior college that it should offer a wide range of 1-year and 2-year programmes, designed for those who have successfully completed a School Certificate course, and catering not only for prospective university students but for all those wishing to continue full time in general (pre-vocational) education.

4.21 Such a college would resemble a tertiary rather than a secondary institution. Its teaching, for instance, is envisaged to be by means of lectures, tutorials, seminars, guided reading, and appropriate practical work (some of which may well be off-campus). Each student would follow his individual timetable, and the college (though not every student and staff member) would typically be in operation from 9 a.m. to 9 p.m. A library with ample carrel provision, science and language laboratories, students' common-room, and coffee-bar or cafeteria facilities (student-managed and staff-audited), and individual studies for staff members, would also resemble tertiary rather than secondary facilities. Staffing would accord with the ratios for sixth and seventh forms.

4.22 We have probably said enough not merely to indicate what type of institution is envisaged, but to suggest that it may not be as easy as is sometimes supposed to make this sort of distinct provision for the upper school within a secondary school which continues as a single entity. Senior colleges are, however, likely to be objected to, on two grounds.

4.23 First, there are the probable costs and delays associated with the building programme which would be needed fully to implement a change of this kind. If staffing ratios in senior colleges accord with those for sixth and seventh forms, there should be no great increase in operating costs, and even the net capital costs may not be as great as might seem likely at first sight, since by detaching the sixth and seventh forms, extensions to buildings could doubtless be avoided at many secondary schools where they would otherwise be needed. Nevertheless, even though the same number of places will eventually have to be provided, on one site or another, the cost of providing and equipping them at standards closer to tertiary than to secondary represents an increase over what is at present officially contemplated. This is not in our view a conclusive objection, since if this kind of distinct provision for the upper school becomes accepted, the cost of upgrading the facilities throughout all secondary schools may very well be greater. There is more force in the objection that many years would inevitably pass before a senior college building programme had been completed, and that a solution to the upper school problem cannot be that long delayed.

4.24 Second, there are the objections which can be expected from the boards of governors, associations of former pupils, staff, and possibly from some of the parents associated with secondary schools, to the proposal that their schools be decapitated. That such objections can be overcome is evident both from current experience in England, where some local education authorities (for example, Devonshire) have recently made similar changes, and indeed from previous experience in New Zealand, where the introduction of intermediate schools evoked from primary schools the same protest. If it be granted that a wider range of programmes and a more suitable (semi-tertiary) type of education would result from the grouping together of sixth and seventh forms into senior colleges, the question is whether the resulting advantages would be more than offset by the disadvantages which pupils in forms 3 to 5 would suffer in consequence of the change. Leadership within the school would be provided by fifth formers instead of sixth or seventh formers; on the other hand, problems of control might well be easier if there were no longer a counter-leadership in the upper school to foment disorder. Staffing might be more difficult for forms 3 to 5, if those teaching them no longer had sixth form teaching to look forward to; on the other hand, staffing generally might become easier, if senior college teaching attracted into the profession specialists who have not been prepared to cover the gamut of the present secondary school course. The proof of this pudding is to be found, we suspect, in the eating, rather than by inquiring into the digestibility of its several ingredients.*

*A more detailed description of the senior college will be found in appendix A.

Conclusions

4.25 It has been our main concern in this chapter to direct attention to what appear to be the present problems of the upper school, and to several possible ways of dealing with them, in the hope that the most practicable directions of advance may become clearer after public discussion. If, however, we were called on in advance of that discussion to formulate recommendations, they would be on the following lines. Since any solution which depends on an extensive programme of new buildings (whether community colleges or senior colleges) will take a considerable period before it becomes fully effective, *immediate attention should be directed towards giving the upper school (that is, forms 6 and 7) a greater distinctiveness within existing secondary schools,*

(a) *by developing (if necessary by co-operation between schools) a wider range of post-School Certificate programmes to cater more fully for the needs both of prospective university entrants and of others;*

(b) *by increased use in the upper school of teaching methods suited to older students;*

(c) *by developing patterns of upper school organisation, of discipline and of facilities closer to those of tertiary than of traditional secondary institutions.*

At the same time, feasibility studies should be commissioned with a view to establishing, in one major city and in one smaller centre with a rural catchment area, a senior college of the type we have sketched. Their performance should be evaluated in due course, as a guide to future policy.

4.26 As a further guide to policy, *we recommend that a set of studies be undertaken forthwith, preferably commissioned by the Advisory Council on Educational Planning, into the following aspects of upper school education:*

(a) *statistical analyses of student rolls, staffing, the nature and objectives of courses now being provided, student achievement;*

(b) *studies of current attempts to relate the teaching and climate of upper schools to the needs and problems of today's pupils;*

(c) *studies of the attitudes, values and aspirations of those pupils, and their reactions to their present education;*

(d) *sample studies of the destination of recent leavers, related to their school courses;*

(e) *absorption studies tracing the careers of samples of former pupils, over a 5 to 10-year period after leaving.*

4.27 While we favour the establishing, at Taradale and subsequently at other provincial centres, of community colleges as envisaged in the Hawke's Bay feasibility study (subject, in the case

of the post-Taradale colleges, to certain modifications explained in our chapter on continuing education), we believe that the needs which they will meet are distinct from the main problems which have concerned us in the present chapter. They—and the existing technical institutes which should be considered with them in this respect—would only have a substantial impact on those problems if they extended much more widely into the field of pre-vocational general education, offering courses at both sixth and seventh form levels. *We therefore suggest that the department and the Technical Institutes Association consider the possibility of commissioning feasibility studies with a view to one major technical institute and, in due course, one community college offering an increasing range of such courses, without necessarily requiring the transfer to it of all sixth and seventh forms in its area.*

Chapter 5 TERTIARY EDUCATION

Introduction

5.1 We deal in this chapter with the three main types of tertiary institution: universities, technical institutes or polytechnics, and teachers colleges. Each of them has, or should have, responsibilities for further education, but here we shall confine our attention to the education and training which they provide typically in preparation for a career; their in-service and extension work will be considered in the next chapter, which deals with continuing education. We shall, moreover, exclude from consideration the field of research despite its being, in the case of the universities, a major function; organisation for university research cannot effectively be examined except in the context of the country's research programme as a whole, and to investigate that would take us too far from our main inquiry.

5.2 The nature of that inquiry has indeed shaped our approach in another way. Since our concern is with the organisation and administration of the entire educational system, we have tended to see tertiary education as a subsystem, hence to focus attention on its organisation (i.e., on the interrelationships among its components, and between them and the rest of the educational system) rather than on the internal administration of its constituent institutions. Detailed management studies of a large and complex institution such as a university or major technical institute call for a special investigation in depth not possible in the course of a general inquiry such as we were called on to undertake.

5.3 The tertiary subsystem is a diverse one, encompassing, for instance, the training of plumbers, physiotherapists, pedagogues, and Ph.Ds. It has, however, certain unifying features, which justify our dealing with it in a single chapter rather than several. Leaving aside its responsibilities for continuing education, it tends predominantly to recruit from forms 6 and 7 of the secondary schools, the main exception being certain trade-training courses in the technical institutes. Moreover, from the viewpoint of the economy it must be seen as a phase of vocational preparation for a wide variety of trades and professions. This is obvious in the case of technical institutes and teachers colleges, but it is no less true in the case of universities. On the one hand they are producing engineers and lawyers, medical practitioners and veterinarians, specifically prepared for certain professional occupations; and on the other

they are exposing some of the most intelligent members of each age group to mind-sharpening processes in the study of the humanities and natural and social sciences, and thereby injecting into the labour force a multi-purpose product of considerable versatility, especially valuable for performing a variety of analytical and decision-making tasks in the large organisations, public and private, of which modern societies increasingly consist.

5.4 This is not to deny that a university can and should attempt more than this—that it should encourage its members (in the words of Sir Hector Hetherington) "by mutual enlightenment and criticism to look to the unity of knowledge, to be aware of its place in the totality of the values of human experience and thereby to contribute to the 'education of the whole man' and to the maintenance and enrichment of the culture within which the university exists."* It is this broader conception of the role of the university which underlies its traditional claims to autonomy in its own government, and to academic freedom for those who teach under its auspices. With the implications of autonomy we shall be importantly concerned in this chapter.

The Problems of Streaming

5.5 Given that the outputs of the tertiary subsystem can be viewed as (though not only as) inputs to the labour force, what mechanisms exist to ensure that the product-mix approximates that which society needs? This is not merely a matter of equating the number of hexagonal pegs with the number of hexagonal holes to be filled; it is also a question of ensuring that the relevant raw material is apt for hexagonality. The problem, in other words, is not merely one of properly balancing the intake into the variety of institutions and programmes which exist at the tertiary level—an outcome which depends largely on pre-tertiary decisions. It is also one of facilitating transfers of individuals from one institution or programme to another, in the light of their revealed aptitudes and changing aspirations.

5.6 The initial decision about which type of institution to enter, and for what programme, is made by the individual concerned, generally whilst still at secondary school. It is shaped by a host of factors, such as family tradition or pressure, and expectations about income and status. It is also constrained, not only by the individual's previous choice of subjects (he will not become an engineer if he has dropped mathematics) and his current academic

*Hetherington, H. *University Autonomy: Its Meaning Today*, International Association of Universities, Paris, 1965.

ability (he will not become a doctor unless he is selected for medical school), but also by more subtle factors. The choice, to the extent that it is his own, must inevitably reflect his limited experience of life's opportunities and responsibilities; his own secondary school programme may be a slender base on which to build career expectations.

5.7 Organisation and administration can help improve these choices in three ways. *First, within the secondary school itself there need to be permanent vocational guidance counsellors backed by a corps of specialists;* and there is widespread agreement that the service to pupils could appropriately be strengthened at this point. *Second, continuing liaison is needed between each secondary school and the tertiary institutions to which it contributes, so that the school can be kept aware of the expanding variety of programmes which they are offering, and of the appropriate preparation for them.* This is especially important in the case of the universities and technical institutes, where programmes are diverse and changes frequent. Over the years the universities have developed close links with secondary schools through their liaison officers, but relationships between technical institutes and secondary schools are not yet always as close.

5.8 *Third, pupils' choices will be significantly influenced by the availability and magnitude of bursary support for different programmes in different institutions.* Two possible approaches to this problem merit consideration. Bursaries may be used as a price mechanism by which to encourage students into socially important but understaffed professions and occupations, and to discourage them from overstaffed occupations and socially unproductive courses of study. Alternatively, students of a similar age and incurring similar costs may qualify for equal bursary support, and it may be left to other inducements to channel them into appropriate occupations. The latter approach can be backed not only by considerations of social justice, but also by some of a practical nature. Differential bursaries will tend to impede desirable transfers of students from one programme or institution to another. Moreover, the differentials, once fixed, tend to persist, whereas a price mechanism is effective only if flexible enough to respond rapidly to changes in supply and demand. Again, substantial bursary advantages tend to be linked to bond requirements and penalty clauses, which have undesirable side effects and which are often difficult to enforce.

5.9 These are not mere abstract reflections; they are writ large in the recent history and present structure of this country's bursary system—for example, the continuing payment to teacher

trainees of a premium originating in the market conditions of the 'sixties, the controversies over appropriate bursary levels for full-time students at technical institutes, and the difficulties arising from the proposed transfer (just begun) of nursing education from the hospitals to the technical institutes. We suspect that there is scope for simplifying and improving the system, by reducing as far as possible the differentials and removing the associated bonding, and where it is necessary to retain them, by confining them to the later years of a programme of training. However, this complex field calls for a more detailed examination than we have been able to give it in the course of this general survey, hence we suggest that the Advisory Council on Educational Planning consider initiating an investigation in the necessary depth.

5.10 In these various ways, secondary school pupils may be aided to make choices among tertiary institutions and programmes which are personally more satisfying and socially more useful. However, as we have already noted, scope must be provided within the tertiary structure for subsequent alteration of some of those choices, arising from changing aspirations and a better awareness of aptitudes. To the extent that this depends on cross-crediting from one institution to another, it will be dealt with later in this chapter as an aspect of the interrelationships among tertiary institutions. It is in part, however, also a problem of making available at a tertiary level a continuing source of vocational guidance; this is specially important in the universities, where students in non-professional courses frequently have an opportunity to select among different subjects, some of which are vocationally more valuable than others. It is pleasing to record that during the past decade the universities have developed a careers advisory service which not only assists their graduates to find employment, but which makes available to undergraduates information about career prospects which can assist them in selecting among alternative programmes of study. We hope that the universities, and the University Grants Committee, will give continued support to that service.

5.11 It must be emphasised that the service is an advisory one, and, in our view, properly so. It is up to the individual student whether to seek careers advice, and if he does, whether to follow it, since it is he, much more immediately and directly than anyone else, who must endure the consequences of that decision. Admittedly, the aggregate effect of students' choices will affect the economy, hence society as a whole; but it is for society, through the market system, to tempt students into those specialisms

to which it gives a high priority. If, for example, there is a shortage of economists, the university has discharged its responsibility to society once it has made that information available to its students and provided places in appropriate courses for all who wish to take them. The university production line is often a long one. The supply of economists cannot be immediately increased, as by opening a tap; it may well take several years substantially to increase the output, from the time that the market begins to reflect the need. And there is always the chance that by then there will be an oversupply of economists and a shortage (for example) of ecologists. So long as the responsibility for course selection lies unequivocally with the student, he can be expected to bear the risks of any such market fluctuations. However, if the university or the Government were to presume to direct him into one course rather than another, it would thereby incur at least a moral responsibility to find a satisfactory solution for his subsequent employment problems.

5.12 In this connection we note in passing that, in developed countries overseas, graduate unemployment tends (when it occurs) to afflict specialists who wish to pursue their specialty, rather than graduates in the humanities and social sciences who are potentially capable of filling a wide range of positions. The contrary impression in this country may well arise from the difficulties encountered, over several years, by women arts graduates who do not wish to be come teachers or librarians; and those difficulties may well stem from the limited opportunities hitherto available to women graduates, rather than from their degrees being in arts.

Institutional Sensitivity to Social Needs

5.13 It has been assumed, in the preceding discussion, that tertiary institutions know what programmes of study they should be offering, in the light of society's needs, and that they take steps to make such programmes available. These assumptions we must now examine.

5.14 The problem is least acute in the case of the teachers colleges. It has been their responsibility to train as many teachers as are needed by the primary and secondary schools, and to ensure that within that output there are appropriate numbers qualified in such fields as special education and various subject specialisations. We shall have occasion later to suggest that the responsibilities of teachers colleges might appropriately be wider than this, in certain respects. Nevertheless, in this main area the scope of their task is clearly defined. In the light of its information

about pupil numbers and of policies governing staffing ratios, the department is able to estimate the numbers and kinds of teachers needed, and to regulate accordingly the size of the annual admission into the various teachers colleges. Problems naturally arise, for example, relating to the selection of entrants, about which we shall comment later in this chapter. The fact remains that relating activities to the needs of society is much less complex for the teachers colleges than for the technical institutes and universities.

5.15 The education provided by the technical institutes is almost entirely vocational, and they are kept informed of the changing pattern of social needs increasingly through the Vocational Training Council and its expanding substructure. The council is a statutory body, established in 1969 to advise on the co-ordination, extension, and improvement of vocational training, since when it has established (at the time of writing) 25 industry training boards through which each industry can identify its own training needs, formulate programmes to meet them, and implement (through executive training officers) those programmes either by running its own courses or by arranging for existing educational institutions (notably, technical institutes) to do so. By this means, and through the contacts of their own staff with local industrial and commercial organisations, technical institutes can keep abreast of the changing pattern of needs, and (subject where necessary to course approval by the department on which we comment later in this chapter) they can and do vary their course offerings rapidly in response to those needs.

5.16 The universities have no comparable national machinery for this purpose, hence it is easy to conclude that they are ivory towers, out of touch with society. Such a conclusion would be erroneous. There are close contacts between the professional schools within the universities and the various professional associations (of accountants, engineers, lawyers, medical practitioners, and so on), and in addition the governing councils of individual universities often establish committees consisting of university staff and appropriate community representatives (such as a business studies advisory committee or a careers advisory board) to keep them informed of how the university might better respond to the employment needs of society.

5.17 Despite this, the criticism continues to be made that the product-mix from the universities is inappropriate. Such evidence as there is in support of this criticism is to be found not in graduate unemployment (which has been rare, save in the special case of

women graduates previously mentioned), but in the shortages of accountants, doctors, economists, engineers, secondary school teachers, statisticians, veterinarians, and other university-trained specialists which have from time to time occurred, or been alleged to occur. It is by no means certain that in all these cases too few specialists have been trained. They may have been available, but tempted by market circumstances into other occupations or into employment overseas. Moreover, the large number of occupations affected suggests that the problem may in part have been one of a general scarcity of graduates in a period of economic expansion and diversification. But conceding that in some cases too few graduates of certain types have been trained, the organisational measures to minimise the likelihood of this happening in future appear to lie rather in the field of national economic planning, predicting several years ahead society's needs for various types of graduate, than in changes in university organisation. The universities can be relied on, through the careers advisory service, to make the information available to students (and to use it themselves, where entry is restricted as, for example, to engineering and medical courses) once it exists, if indeed it is possible to produce reliable estimates of this kind.

5.18 We turn now to examine in turn each of the main components of the tertiary subsystem, namely the universities, the technical institutes, and the teachers colleges, before considering further the interrelationships among them.

The University System

5.19 Although the beginnings of university education in this country are now a century old, the system with which we are concerned dates from 1961 when the present University Grants Committee was established to co-ordinate the autonomous universities which were then created out of the existing university colleges. There are now 6 universities, containing in 1972 over 25,000 full-time and about 9,500 part-time students, a full-time teaching staff of over 2,200, and servicing (mainly through Massey University) some 3,700 extramural students. The 'sixties was a period of rapid university expansion, and although rolls have stabilised in some of the larger universities during the past couple of years, the increase in enrolments nationwide during the 5 years 1967–72 was over 47 percent.

5.20 Increases at such a rate apply a stringent test to any mechanisms of administration and control, and the success with which they have been handled is a tribute to those who designed the 1961

system and have operated it since then, in the University Grants Committee and the several universities. Since that system departs markedly from normal New Zealand practice, is not widely understood, and is sometimes suggested as a model for the technical institutes and/or teachers colleges, a brief explanation is needed.

5.21 It is designed to confer on the individual universities as much autonomy as possible, and to insulate them from direct political control. At the same time, a measure of control and co-ordination is needed, partly to ensure responsible expenditure of public moneys (the universities are financed predominantly by the State), and partly to prevent unilateral action by any university which would be harmful to the others. These results are achieved in three ways: by the operations of the University Grants Committee, by the system of quinquennial funding, and by the use of "block" grants.

The University Grants Committee

5.22 The University Grants Committee (hereafter UGC) is an independent statutory body which appraises the financial needs of the universities both for current and capital spending, works out priorities among them, and makes recommendations to the Government. In performing this task it is aided by a small but expert staff, whose functions are not duplicated elsewhere. The system is thus both efficient and economic; but this, while a necessary, is not a sufficient condition for its success. The UGC has the inherently difficult task of retaining the confidence both of the Government and of the universities. Through efficient staff work and its own good judgment, it can reasonably expect to convince the Government that its recommendations are sound (though the Government is under no compulsion to accept them, and indeed did not do so for instance on the siting of the proposed second university in the Auckland area). To retain the support of the universities is perhaps more difficult, since some will inevitably be disappointed when their most cherished projects are not given top priority. Yet the condition for the survival of the system is that the universities are prepared to accept the UGC's ruling, and not to carry their battle as far as the Government. This willingness, in a country where virtually every organisation asserts and tends to avail itself of its right to take its dissatisfactions to a Cabinet Minister, is the most striking feature of the system, and one which raises doubts about its applicability to other institutions. It has worked in the case of the universities, only because their fear of political control is so deep-rooted, and because they recognise that this would follow if the UGC were undermined.

Quinquennial Grants

5.23 Each university's grant for current operating costs (but not for major capital works) is settled once every 5 years for the following quinquennium, by the Government advised by the UGC, taking into account its prospective student enrolment and other foreseen changes. The advantage is increased autonomy, in that each university has an opportunity (indeed, an obligation) to plan its own development within the limits of its grant, and to revise its plans if unforeseen changes occur. The disadvantage is that not all changes are foreseeable, especially those arising several years ahead; the estimates have in practice to be prepared almost 7 years ahead of the final year of the forthcoming quinquennium, and it has not in practice proved possible to estimate reliably for that period of time either the trend of enrolments, or the rate of inflation. (Adjustments are made during a quinquennium to cover some cost increases, for example, in staff salaries, but not all.) For the past two quinquennia the system has worked, if not with universal satisfaction, at least without generating strong demands for a change. The forthcoming quinquennium may, however, present special problems. As already noted, enrolments at some universities have during the past 2 years levelled off; this trend was not predicted nor (so far as we are aware) are its causes yet understood, hence whether and to what extent they will be operative in 1979 (the final year of the forthcoming quinquennium) is unusually hard to say.

5.24 A case can accordingly be made for a somewhat shorter planning period, covering 3 or 4 instead of 5 years. We recognise that the burdens on the UGC and the university administrations would be greater if these major planning exercises were more frequent; the triennium has nevertheless been found practicable for university financing in Australia. The shorter the planning period, it may be urged, the greater the risks of political control; but such risks are inherent in a situation of substantial unforeseen increases in enrolments, whether the UGC tried to renegotiate current grants, or sanctioned refusals to admit some qualified entrants, or permitted an unacceptable deterioration in university standards. At the present late stage of planning for the forthcoming quinquennium, and in the absence of any clear demand for change, no purpose can be served by our recommending that the planning period be now shortened; but that is, in our view, a possibility which may need to be seriously considered at some future time.

5.25 Mention of the increased burdens on university administrations serves to call attention to a feature of the system which may limit its applicability to other institutions. Only if local personnel and procedures are competent to provide a sound set of

forecasts and proposals for the UGC's evaluation can the forward planning at the national level be effective, and only if they are strong and experienced can they be relied on to produce (and, when necessary, revise) their local plans for year-by-year development. Autonomy is impracticable without a well-staffed administration.

Block Grants

5.26 The UGC has adopted the practice of providing, as far as possible, block grants for each university's operating expenses, instead of itemised grants. This leaves the university free to decide each year how much to spend on staffing, how much on equipment, how much on its library, and so forth. Its choices are, of course, fairly tightly circumscribed by the practical realities of its situation, such as the pattern of student demand, its inescapable housekeeping costs (for maintenance, cleaning and caretaking, heating and lighting, and so on), and the need to adapt to unforeseen changes. Nevertheless, it is the university and not a higher authority which must cope with these realities; it has to make the choices, and live with their consequences. Autonomy, attractive in theory, is often more painful in practice than leaving to an outside body the opprobrium of making the tough decisions. It is, however, a salutary discipline.

5.27 For more than a decade this system of financing and control has worked reasonably well, and save for a possible reduction in the length of the planning period we recommend no change in it. We are, however, aware that, to the extent that university rolls level off (as in some cases they show signs of doing, and as in any case must eventually happen when a university reaches the limits of its site), new problems will arise for which solutions must be found. The danger is that an institution static in size may be unwilling to respond to changes in demand. The process of cutting down (*a fortiori*, of phasing out) a department in whose courses there are ever fewer students is a slow and painful one; but unless this can be done, resources cannot be reallocated to those departments which are faced with larger classes. In such circumstances, to attempt to restrict admissions where increases in demand are generating problems can at best be a short-term expedient, justifiable only to secure time in which to redeploy resources. It may be that, in some cases, the problem of small and declining departments will call for a national solution, so that staff can be transferred from one university to another. This is a problem for interuniversity consultation, initially at the level of the committee of vice-chancellors, and, if necessary, at a conference of universities.

University Capital Works

5.28 To this point we have been mainly concerned with university autonomy (and its limitations) in the field of current operating costs. Passing reference was made to the role of the UGC in appraising and placing in priority order the universities' proposals for major capital works. Its recommendations go via the university works committee (consisting of the UGC chairman and representatives of Treasury, the Ministry of Works, and the department) to the Cabinet and /or its works committee; this procedure is followed at the successive stages of space schedules, sketch plans, working drawings, and calling for tenders, as is usual in the case of Government works. A streamlined procedure recently developed is the "cash constraint" scheme, under which the UGC obtains from the Government an authority for a university to design, erect, and equip a building within a predetermined cost, without further approvals. This procedure can apply only to self-contained single-purpose buildings, not to phase in the development of a wider project, and its use is inevitably limited at times of rapidly rising costs of building, but it seems to have worked well in appropriate circumstances, and we hope it can be more widely used.

University Entrance Requirements

5.29 At two important points there are limits to the autonomy of individual universities. of a non-financial kind. First, they have little freedom in deciding which students to admit, since uniform entrance standards are laid down by the universities entrance board (consisting of the UGC chairman and representatives of the universities, secondary schools, and the department); any qualified applicant has hitherto been entitled to enrol at any university, though as individual universities reach the maximum enrolment for which they have been planned, they will have to restrict admissions, generally we presume on a zoning basis. Admission to some courses may, however, be restricted, either on a continuing basis (for example, the competitive entry to medical school) or as an emergency measure when there is an insufficiency of accommodation or staff for certain courses. The principle of unrestricted admission to universities of those who meet a uniform national standard is rarely criticised. What does arouse controversy is the standard set.

5.30 On the one hand, some infer from the generally high failure rates in first-year university courses that the present standard it too low; at one time this argument was directed against the practice of allowing many schools to "accredit" their better students, leaving only the marginal candidates to sit the Entrance examination, though nowadays it seems to be more widely recognised that

failure at university is rather more likely among those who have sat and passed the Entrance examination than among accredited entrants. Stiffening the entrance requirement would do something to reduce subsequent failure rates, but at the cost of excluding a sizeable number of students who now succeed in the university. The problem is that failure, especially in the first year at university, is often a consequence not of deficiencies of intellect but of insufficient motivation to study, of slowness to adjust to university life, or of late-adolescent emotional disturbances.

5.31 On the other hand, therefore, there are those who urge that the present system of pre-entry selection (whether by examining or accrediting) be scrapped, and that the uniform national qualification for admission be merely that a student has completed form 6 (or form 7) and wishes to enter the university. In this way, it is suggested, the secondary schools could finally extricate themselves from the tyranny of the examination system, or at least confine it to that minority of the upper school which opts to sit the bursary and scholarship examinations at the end of form 7. (On the more radical view, they, too, should be scrapped.)

5.32 Whether examinations in secondary schools are unconditionally a bad thing, or whether they provide motivation for the student and an indication (to him, and to his parents and prospective employers) of his level of achievement, are questions of educational philosophy into the wider aspects of which it is not for us to probe. We must, however, point out that at some point, selection for university study is inescapable. Against the alleged advantages to secondary schools of the proposed system of universal accreditation must therefore be weighed the costs of transferring the point of selection to the end of the first university year. These would include larger first-year classes of poorer average quality for which some increases in accommodation, staffing and bursary support would doubtless be needed, and a much more comprehensive and ruthless system for excluding unsatisfactory students at the end of the first year. Viewed in this light, the present Entrance system seems a reasonable compromise between those who protest that first-year failure rates are already too high and those who propose (by implication) that they be even higher, and the Entrance board appears well constituted to make such changes in it as may from time to time be appropriate.

University Curriculum Controls

5.33 The other main non-financial limitation to the autonomy of individual universities stems from the requirement that, before they offer a new degree programme or (in some cases) a new course of

study, they obtain the approval of the UGC's curriculum committee (consisting of the UGC chairman and representatives of the universities and the Department of Education). Proposals which may lead to requests for additional finance have to be approved by the UGC also. These provisions make possible the scrutiny at a national level of curriculum changes by individual universities which may have implications for other universities, or for other tertiary institutions (for which the department's representative holds a watching brief). The curriculum committee has used a fairly loose rein, concerning itself rather with the academic merits of the proposals which it reviews than with attempting to define appropriate areas of specialisation for the various universities. (That is, however, done by the UGC where specially expensive programmes, such as in engineering or medicine, are in question.) Bearing in mind that we have already suggested that the committee of vice-chancellors is the most appropriate body initially to explore the possibilities of local specialisation to meet the problems of small departments with diminishing student demand, the curriculum committee seems a suitable mechanism for blending a substantial degree of practical autonomy with a desirable element of control, in the interests of the universities.

5.34 However, the presence on the curriculum committee of a representative of the department is merely a first step to ensuring that the universities do not pre-empt programmes which might more appropriately be developed in technical institutes or teachers colleges, and it offers the universities no assurance against prejudicial developments in those institutions. Accordingly, a Standing Committee on University and Technical Institute Relationships has recently been set up, and an extension of its scope to cover teachers colleges has been approved.

5.35 While it is too new for its effectiveness yet to be gauged, we expect it to provide a valuable opportunity for seeking consensus about major programme developments in tertiary education on which a national policy is needed. (The recent decisions, though preceding the committee's establishment, that nursing and paramedical training should become a responsibility of the technical institutes, illustrate the type of issue we have in mind.) We do not suggest that the committee be empowered formally to decide such questions; rather, its purposes should be to ensure that each component of the system is aware of proposed developments elsewhere, and has an opportunity to discuss them with a view to reaching an agreed definition of responsibilities. Where disagreement persists, the Government will normally be in a position to make the final decision, in consequence of its power to allocate the funds needed for such major developments.

5.36 Apart from individual new developments, there already exist several problem areas in which the committee might achieve some clarification of responsibilities. For example, a bewildering proliferation of courses in management education and training is currently being offered, at graduate, undergraduate, and extension levels in the universities, for institute of management and other examinations in the technical institutes, and by many outside firms and organisations. While it is not to be supposed that management education (any more than science education) should become the exclusive responsibility of a single type of institution, there may well be scope for a clearer definition of appropriate levels and objectives for different courses, and patterns of progression from one to another, than presently exists. With this in mind the Vocational Training Council has already initiated an investigation, and we suggest that in the light of the resulting findings the Committee on University and Technical Institute Relationships should attempt to achieve such a clearer definition within its own area of jurisdiction. There are other fields of study, too, in which that committee (perhaps in conjunction with the Advisory Council on Educational Planning) might seek similar improvements.

5.37 Agreed policies at the national level, though highly desirable, will not solve all the problems of undesirable course-duplication among institutions at a local level, resulting from the degree of autonomy possessed by individual universities. Our attention was drawn, for example, to the situation which has arisen in Invercargill where there are too few students to warrant the provision of two accountancy courses, one offered (for degree credit) by the Extension Department of Otago University and the other by the Technical Institute. Such problems can only be overcome through better local co-ordination. Machinery already exists for this purpose, in the form of joint committees of individual universities and local technical institutes,* but it may need to be more fully used. The scope for such machinery in achieving closer co-ordination between teachers colleges and universities (in the form, for instance, of joint courses, or courses taught by a staff member from the other institution) is clear from the experience of Waikato University and Hamilton Teachers College; again, it may need to be more fully used elsewhere.

The Technical Institute System

5.38 These are the newest components in New Zealand's tertiary education, with growth rates even more rapid than those of the universities. There are now 12 technical institutes, containing

*For a fuller description, see the Advisory Council on Educational Planning Working Party Report *University-Technical Institute Relationships*, September 1971, pp. 26–30.

in 1972 almost 3,000 full-time and over 53,000 part-time students, and a full-time teaching staff of over 1,100; the 53,000 included over 16,000 extramural students serviced by the Technical Correspondence Institute. The increase in enrolments nationwide in the 5 years 1967–72 exceeded 60 percent, and with the prospective establishment of new institutes a continuing growth rate of about 10 percent annually is expected.

5.39 Like the universities, the technical institutes have their own governing councils. Unlike them, the technical institutes are closely linked to the department, which has borne much of the responsibility for planning and development carried, in the university system, by the UGC and the local university administrations. Technical institutes have accordingly not achieved as much autonomy nor as much administrative strength individually as have the universities, and one of the main current issues is to what extent, and how, their autonomy should be increased.

Technical Institute Autonomy

5.40 Technical institute councils have at present a limited but not negligible scope for independent decision making. They are, for example, free to appoint their own tutors within a prescribed staffing entitlement, and they have some discretion in spending the grants which they receive for such purposes as ancillary staffing, general expenses, and replacement of minor items of equipment. Such restrictions on that discretion as they find irksome are being discussed with the department through the recently established Standing Committee on Technical Institute Administration, and progressively removed.

5.41 There is, however, a widespread feeling that a greater measure of autonomy is desirable, especially for the larger institutes with more administrative strength and experience, so that their councils can make more decisions in the light of their own assessment of local circumstances. This attitude is shared by the Technical Institutes Association, the institutes themselves, and the department. The problem is not one of the direction but of the detailed nature and rate of change.

5.42 One possibility which we considered but rejected was the replacement of the UGC by a tertiary grants committee, to advise the Government about the financial needs of technical institutes and teachers colleges as well as of universities. It is very doubtful that the several tertiary institutions, thus combined, would be as willing as the universities have been to accept grants committee rulings about priorities and to refrain from urging their individual

proposals upon the Government; and as we have pointed out (in para. 5.22 above), without this measure of self-restraint a grants committee system would be undermined. Moreover, unless the department were stripped of all responsibility for advising the Government about tertiary education (and such a change would throw appreciable extra burdens on grants committee staff, as well as depriving the Minister and the Government of an important present source of advice), there would be a wasteful duplication of officials performing similar functions in the department and the grants committee office respectively, such as does not at present exist.

5.43 A second possibility, which we also rejected, is the creation of a separate grants committee for the technical institutes. The Technical Institutes Association clearly recognised the problems inherent in separating the institutes from the department in this fashion; and while the proposal has some supporters, there is no sign of the widespread enthusiasm for it which we believe to be a prerequisite for its success, in view of the institutional self-discipline which such a system demands. The fact is that the technical institutes have less cause than the universities to worry about polictial control, fear of which is important in keeping a grants committee viable.

5.44 We have also considered, and rejected, the creation of a separate Government department for technical education, or tertiary education. While these were not specifically suggested to us, the former idea was implicit in proposals we received for upgrading the post of Director of Technical Education, which would have meant extracting the technical directorate from the network of inter-division relationships in the present department and thereby making it independent, in essence if not in name. The directorate is at present serviced by many other components of the department, which it would be uneconomic to duplicate, and separation would also create new problems of inter-departmental co-ordination. The present system (which will not in these respects be materially changed by the proposed departmental reorganisation discussed in chapter 7) is preferable.

5.45 Having thus considered and rejected various possible major changes in the machinery for national co-ordination of technical education which might lead to greater autonomy for the institutes, we turned our attention to their financing. Autonomy might be increased, as in the university system, by funding for more than a year at a time, or by a wider use of block grants.

5.46 Whereas universities are given, to cover their current operating costs, block grants fixed in advance on the basis of forecast needs, technical institute grants are mainly based on a formula

according to the number of students they currently have in courses of various kinds. So long as this persists, there is clearly little scope for funding for more than a year at a time, nor is it certain that their administrative staffs are in all cases strong and experienced enough to undertake the necessary forecasting. It is, moreover, doubtful whether the institutes are yet willing to trade the short-term certainty of receiving a grant for every student taught for the longer-term advantages of forward financial planning.

5.47 One disadvantage of the present system is the unnecessarily burdensome and detailed counting and calculating which must be done to arrive at the "adjusted student hours" on which the formula for grants now depends. It is to be hoped that the Standing Committee on Technical Institute Administration will give early attention to simplifying these procedures (for example, by using "class hours" as the basis); but this is no more than a short first step. *The least to be aimed at, as a condition for proper budgeting, is that each institute shall know early in the year what its grant is to be (perhaps by using enrolment figures, modified as necessary, as the basis); and in due course, when the growth rates of the larger institutes can be estimated with reasonable reliability, they might be permitted to opt for a grant extending over a 2- or 3-year period. In the meantime, at least the practice of carrying forward unspent funds from one year to another should be extended, in the case of the more experienced institutes, to the moneys for ancillary staffing.*

5.48 The most immediate opportunities for greater financial autonomy for technical institutes depend, however, on an increased use of block grants. At present the grants are itemised, that is to say, the institute has no discretion to redeploy its financial resources from one category (such as staffing, equipment, maintenance, ancillary staffing, renewal of equipment) to another, even though it may be obvious within the institute that it would for instance be economic to buy a machine to do a job hitherto done by ancillary staff. Our attention has indeed been drawn to a tendency towards a more detailed compartmentalisation within the staffing category. As we have already pointed out (in para. 5.26 above), the blocking of grants confers only a limited freedom on an institution, since its choices are fairly tightly circumscribed by the demands which it must meet. It is nevertheless an important freedom, since it encourages the staff and their governing council to discover what alternatives do in fact exist, and obliges them to live with the consequences of their own choices. Accordingly, *we recommend that autonomy in financial decision making be progressively extended in the established technical institutes, by breaking down the existing strict itemising of grants, and that tendencies towards a further compartmentalising within the existing categories be resisted. They should be permitted, for instance,*

greater freedom (within their budgets) to diverge from standard staffing establishments in the light of their own assessment of needs. We intend that these recommendations should be considered by the Standing Committee on Technical Institute Administration.

Control of Technical Curricula

5.49 In comparison with the universities, technical institutes have very little freedom to decide what they shall teach. Certainly they can introduce new courses; they have indeed rapidly been extending the range of programmes available, and further diversification is likely. Approval by the department is needed in most cases, but this parallels the controls exercised in the university system by the curriculum committee and the UGC, and seems both necessary and widely accepted. The problem arises because, save in the case of a few "local" courses devised by an institute itself (in such fields as design and journalism), what is taught must conform to a prescription laid down by an external examining body.

5.50 Such bodies are of three kinds. Some are authorities of long standing, such as the City and Guilds Institute and the Chartered Institute of Secretaries, but chief in importance are two more recent organisations; the Technicians Certification Authority (TCA) and the Trades Certification Board (TCB).

5.51 The TCA prescribes courses and syllabuses, conducts examinations, and awards certificates for technicians. In 18 years it has seen its student numbers grow from 45 to 26,000, with 5,100 having obtained certificates. The growth rate in its student numbers is accelerating.

5.52 The TCB was set up 25 years ago to examine and award certificates to those practising or intending to practise a trade, in conformity with a long-held belief that national standards and courses should be established as an incentive to greater efficiency in the skilled trades. Having begun with apprentices, it now caters also for industries without apprenticeship. In 1972, over 29,000 individuals provided nearly 41,000 candidatures in over 400 examinations, covering 60 trades and four other occupations. By March 1973, over 37,000 Trades Certificates and nearly 10,000 Advanced Trades Certificates had been awarded.

5.53 From all these figures it will be clear that a great deal of the teaching in technical institutes (and indeed in the vocational evening classes in secondary schools, referred to in the next chapter) is for TCA and TCB examinations. The technical institute system is represented on the TCA and the TCB, and on their constituent committees. The fact remains that the

staff in the individual technical institutes are inflexibly bound by the national prescriptions, and thereby deprived of opportunities to experiment and to improve the courses which they teach.

5.54 In recommending a change in this situation we intend no criticism of the TCA or TCB, which have unquestionably effected great extensions to and improvements in the training of technicians and tradesmen respectively. Indeed, they will continue to be indispensable in maintaining national standards, much as they do at present. However, *in the case of technician training we believe that the time has now arrived when, at the discretion of the TCA, individual technical institutes should be permitted to devise and offer approved local courses and examinations as an alternative means of satisfying its certificate requirements.* This would provide scope for a local testing of course innovations, some of which the TCA might well decide in due course to adopt; without some flexibility of this kind we foresee that the national syllabuses will change more slowly than will industrial needs.

5.55 *We believe that the TCB too should be prepared to "accredit" (at its discretion) selected institute courses and examinations for its certificates, especially as a means of testing out possible modifications of the present apprenticeship system.* Problems arising from the excessive rigidity of national requirements, such as we foresee in the case of technician qualifications, have in the case of apprenticeship already arrived. There is a widespread feeling that changes are needed, but as yet no agreement on what those changes should be. In such a situation the larger technical institutes, closely in touch with industrial needs and processes, should be given every encouragement to innovate, so that alternatives to the present courses can be evaluated. Pilot courses with a greater educational content and with full-time study at an early stage have indeed been established in several trades, but in only two of them has the TCB allowed the institutes to devise their own prescriptions or modes of assessment. (Assessment is an important field for innovation since apprentices, whilst in most trades required to attend evening classes, are required in three trades only to sit the trades examinations; hence they are often poorly motivated.) Admittedly there are some problems in the reform of apprenticeship which are beyond the scope of the technical institutes, notably whether the employer or the State should bear the cost of an expanded educational programme, and how to devise rewards sufficient to encourage the skilled tradesman of tomorrow to become certificated; but progress should be made in solving the educational problems while these others are under discussion.

5.56 We intend that these proposals should be considered by the TCA and the TCB.

The Quality of Technical Education

5.57 Hitherto our discussion of the technical institute system has focussed on greater autonomy for the institutes, which we see developing primarily in the fields of finance and curricula. In the light of this concern with autonomy it may seem paradoxical at first sight that we also favour a strengthening of the technical directorate in the department. This apparent paradox will be resolved as we explain the purposes for which the directorate should be strengthened.

5.58 As has been noted, the technical institute system is relatively new, and its energies have hitherto been mainly directed to coping with the rapid expansion in courses and student numbers which we have mentioned. Whilst problems of quantity will remain important, we believe that increasing attention should now be directed to problems of quality. As in all education, the quality of what is done depends ultimately on the professional capacity and integrity of the individual teacher; but he can be assisted in various ways to maintain and improve his performance. To an important extent, these opportunities cannot be developed within each institute acting separately, but call for some central provision. Eventually, perhaps, this will be maintained by the institutes acting collectively, but for the next few years at least the initiative must we believe rest with the technical directorate.

5.59 The first need is for a central source of professional advice in a variety of specialised fields, on which individual institutes can draw when planning new courses or new teaching methods. *Whilst it would be impracticable to include in the directorate an expert in every subject which is or may be offered by a technical institute, it should contain an adequate range of peripatetic specialists who are aware of what has been and is being tried throughout the system, and can advise the staff of individual institutes in the light of that knowledge.* This is essentially the role of the inspectorate in primary and secondary education, shorn of its responsibilities for the assessment of individual teachers and schools.

5.60 The second need is to assist each institute to evaluate its current programmes, in the light of standards elsewhere. For this purpose *we recommend that each institute be visited every few years by a small team consisting of the relevant specialist from the directorate together with individuals in the same area of specialisation drawn from industry, from other institutes and possibly (in some cases)*

from a university, to comment on its courses in a given subject area. The purpose of such visits would, we emphasise, be solely to assist the staff of the relevant institute department to evaluate their courses and techniques, and to draw to their attention approaches used elsewhere in the system; accordingly, it is hoped that they would be welcomed.

5.61 The third need which we believe the department could help the technical institutes to meet, in improving the quality of their performance, is for an increase in staff training, not only for newly appointed tutors (for whom short courses are now provided at the Central Institute of Technology) but also for senior staff with increasing administrative responsibilities. *We believe that teachers colleges are the most appropriate institutions in which to develop courses for newly appointed tutors, as part of a wider programme of training for those in tertiary and continuing education, hence the department (through its links with the teachers colleges) is well situated to explore the possibilities. The department itself might well provide, or arrange for, courses in management training for senior technical institute staff.* Opportunities for further training and experience within industry are also needed.

5.62 We intend that these proposals should be considered by the department, in conjunction with the Technical Institutes Association and the Association of Teachers in Technical Institutes.

Regionalisation of Technical Institute Planning and Servicing

5.63 A sub-committee of this working party investigated the need for a regional tier of organisation in Auckland, where there are already two technical institutes and others are likely to be established. At present the Auckland and Manakau technical institutes are governed by a single council, which divides into two committees of management to exercise day-to-day control of the two institutes. This form of control is clearly impracticable for governing a larger number of institutes (as many as six may be needed), and it is suggested by the Council of the Auclkand Technical Institutes that what is needed is a governing board for each institute together with a regional council for certain planning and servicing purposes.

5.64 There is widespread agreement, in which we share, with the outlines of this proposal. The problems lie in deciding which functions should be allocated to each level, and how the regional council should be composed. In making these decisions the ultimate objective must be to make each board an effective and autonomous governing body with scope for initiative and enterprise in running its own institute, and to make the regional council a body of equal

partners, responsible in part for certain common services of a non-discretionary nature and in part for formulating collective views on such matters of regional policy as lie within the jurisdiction of the department, the Minister or the Government.

5.65 Each board would thus employ its own staff and be responsible for the organisation of its institute with full financial autonomy, just as would the council of any institute elsewhere, except that such functions as payroll servicing and the payment of its accounts would be performed on its behalf by the office of the regional council. To avoid any appearance of inequality among institutes, we suggest that the council's office be located on a neutral site. So long as the department reserves the right to confirm senior appointments in technical institutes elsewhere, the confirmation of such appointments in Auckland might well be a responsibility of the regional council. Above all, that council would be responsible for keeping under review the future development of tertiary technical education in the Auckland area (that is, the area controlled by the Auckland Regional Authority), for advising the department about the establishment and location of new institutes, and for working out a zoning scheme, if such proved necessary. The thorniest problem in allocating functions would be that of recommending the placement of courses. It would clearly be desirable for the regional council to agree on a policy for course placement in the Auckland area, hence this must figure among its responsibilities. The danger is that either the Auckland Technical Institute, or the smaller institutes in coalition against it, might gain control and propose a policy tailored to local rather than regional needs. The best safeguard against such a possibility is to ensure, when determining the constitution of the council, that it contain (whether by appointment or co-option) enough unaligned members to prevent such an outcome. A board which believed itself to be victimised in this way would not be prevented from appealing to Wellington (after, we would hope, the council has considered the matter), but this in our view would be less a safeguard than a symptom that the system was not working as intended, which the department is in any case likely to be aware of, in view of the proposal that it be represented by an associate member on the council. Incidentally, we believe that consideration should be given to designating as that representative the Director of Technical Education or his nominee.

5.66 We believe that on these lines a reasonable solution could be arrived at for Auckland's problems of regional organisation. It does not follow, however, that similar machinery would be applicable or acceptable to other regions, nor do we believe that such uniformity of organisation is necessary.

The Teachers College System

5.67 There are at present nine teachers colleges. That in Christchurch trains both primary and secondary teachers. There are separate primary and secondary colleges in Auckland, and primary colleges at North Shore, Ardmore (shortly to be phased out), Hamilton, Palmerston North, Wellington, and Dunedin. The North Shore and Hamilton teachers colleges have in 1973 introduced courses for the training of kindergarten teachers, elsewhere conducted at kindergarten training centres (four in number). In 1972 there were over 8,000 students in teachers colleges, an increase of about 57 percent over the 1967 figure, and over 600 full-time staff. Further significant increases are, however, unlikely for the time being, unless the teachers colleges move into other areas of training, such as for pre-school, tertiary, and continuing education staff, and in-service courses for teachers already qualified.

5.68 Like the technical institutes and unlike the universities, the teachers colleges have close links with the department. Until recently, these were separate linkages with its primary and secondary directorates, but there has now been established the post of superintendent of teacher training to provide greater unity in the department's approach to teachers college matters; the proposed reorganisation of the head office of the department (to be discussed in chapter 7) will carry this process further. As in the case of the technical institutes, the department has borne much of the responsibility for planning and development, hence the governing councils of the teachers colleges have not acquired as much autonomy, nor their administrations as much strength, as have those of the universities.

Teachers College Autonomy

5.69 The teachers colleges are considerably more autonomous than the technical institutes in matters of curriculum and assessment, and in that respect our conclusions in the preceding sections of this chapter are not applicable. Otherwise, and especially in the field of finance, their problems are generally similar, and we shall not traverse the ground again in detail. *Their autonomy in financial decision making should be progressively extended, initially by relaxing the strict itemising of grants. Moreover, as a condition for proper budgeting, steps must be taken so that each college knows early in the year what its grant is to be; and the expected greater stability of teachers college than of technical institute enrolments should make easier a move in due course towards determining grants for 2 or 3 years ahead, though some strengthening of their administrative procedures and staffing may be needed before this could occur.*

We intend that these proposals should be considered by the Standing Committee on Teachers College Administration, which may need to be more formally constituted than it has hitherto been.

5.70 A possible area of increased autonomy in the primary teachers colleges is the selection of students. This is at present done under the aegis of the local education board by a committee consisting of the teachers college principal (or his deputy), the district senior inspector (primary), and two education board representatives. While there may be a case for some small modification of the composition of these committees, we think it appropriate that they should continue to include representatives of all three groups. *A review is needed not only of their membership but also of their procedures, so that the processes of selection can be better co-ordinated with the admission procedures of the colleges.* A "clearing house" system may need to be instituted. We intend that these suggestions should be considered by the department, in conjunction with the Education Boards Association and the relevant teachers colleges.

5.71 A topic related to autonomy is the legislation governing the composition and powers of teachers college councils. An amending Act, revising their constitution in the light of their first few years of operation (till the mid-sixties the colleges were run by education boards), has been under discussion for some time and will not be passed until 1974. We heard some complaints that in the absence of such legislation the councils felt themselves to be provisional, and uncertain of their powers. Without denying either the need for an amending Act or the benefits which may flow from it, we doubt that in a changing world it is wise to rest such confidence in statutory provisions. The law will always tend to lag behind the needs of the current situation, which is where governing bodies will also be unless they have the self-confidence to do not merely whatever is commanded or is customary, but whatever is needed and is not prohibited. Autonomy is, to a significant extent, a state of mind.

The Scope of Teachers Colleges

5.72 With the possible exception of the Christchurch Teachers College, the teachers colleges have tended to become "monotechnic" rather than "polytechnic" in nature, each training for only one level (primary or secondary) of the school system. Secondary teachers' spokesmen have defended this separation, on the grounds that secondary trainees are different from (that is, generally older than) primary trainees, and need different courses differently organised. These premises do not, however, necessarily make separation desirable. We recognise that the special needs of secondary, or for

that matter of primary or any other kind of trainees, must be adequately met, but believe that they can be met in a college of a polytechnic character (i.e., training more than one type of teacher).

5.73 Whether this is preferable will depend partly on local circumstances, and partly on the range of courses to be offered. A large multi-purpose institution offering a wide range of courses would, we believe, be a more satisfying place of work for its academic staff, offering them greater opportunities for specialisation and/or for extending their professional interests, and it should also make available to them, and to their students, a greater vareity of plant and equipment with which to work than could economically be provided for a small specialised institution.

5.74 The sub-committee of this working party which investigated the Christchurch Teachers College concluded that local circumstances (such as the balance between its primary and secondary divisions, and the widespread interest in developing a wider range of courses) made it a suitable institution to undertake a much wider range of activities than has hitherto been characteristic of teachers colleges, provided that it is appropriately organised and planned to that end*. We have in mind the provision of training for pre-school and tertiary staff, and for those involved (whether full or part time) in adult education and vocational training; an expansion of special education; and the development of in-service courses for teachers, as suggested in our next chapter.

5.75 Whether it will prove possible to develop elsewhere a multipurpose teachers college of this type depends on local circumstances, especially in Auckland which is the only other centre in which both primary and secondary teachers are currently trained. Once plans in Christchurch have been settled, the scope for similar developments in Auckland should be investigated. In other parts of the country it seems inevitable for the time being that the training of primary teachers will continue to be the main responsibility of the colleges, but there is scope for expansion into training preschool staff (North Shore and Hamilton have already introduced courses for kindergarten teachers) and into in-service training.

5.76 The teachers colleges, being for the most part longer-established than the technical institutes and having a more fully developed network (through conferences, visits, and other personal contracts) for comparing standards and exchanging information about new developments, need not look to the superintendent of teacher training for professional leadership as the institutes look (for

*An indication of how this might be done is contained in appendix B.

the time being) to a strengthened technical directorate (see para. 5.58 above). Accordingly, we see the department's main policy responsibility towards teachers colleges as being for the next few years to explore the possibilities of their undertaking the wider range of functions which we have suggested.

University/Technical Institute/Teachers College Relationships

5.77 In paras. 5.35–5.37 we discussed problems of co-ordinating the course offerings of tertiary institutions at both a national and local level. Having now examined the prospective pattern of developments for each type of tertiary institution we must return to consider a few other aspects of the relationships amongst them.

5.78 First, we believe that there is considerably greater scope for fruitful co-operation at the local level than merely avoiding undesirable duplication of courses. In part this is a matter of becoming aware of areas of expertise in a sister institution, and being willing to co-operate to make the best use of the specialists and facilities available. For example, both the teachers colleges and (to a lesser extent) the universities have been developing the use of such facilities as closed circuit television and videotaping, with little apparent awareness of the electronics work in technical institutes. Again, as previously mentioned, there may be scope in other centres for a co-ordinated use of staff between universities and teachers colleges such as has developed at Waikato/Hamilton and Massey/Palmerston North, and the possibility of such co-ordination also in some areas of technical institute work should not be overlooked. Representation of one institution on the governing body of another, while of some value, is clearly insufficient to achieve this kind of professional collaboration. Joint committees at a staff level, strongly encouraged by top-level academic policy makers, are needed.

5.79 An area in which the need for co-operation is better recognised is that of cross-crediting, i.e., of allowing credit in one institution for work done in another. This is obviously highly desirable, to facilitiate appropriate transfers of students from one programme and institution to another. Significant progress has been made, both between universities and technical institutes and between some universities and teachers colleges, though more is yet to be achieved.

5.80 It is by this means, we believe, that a solution should be sought to the final problem with which we must deal in this chapter. It is embedded in the very concept of "tertiary education". Are the activities of universities, technical institutes and teachers colleges

essentially the same, so that (for example) teachers colleges could appropriately be absorbed by the universities, or are there differences which justify the continued existence of three separate kinds of institutions? It must be recognised that different countries answer this question in different ways; but in this country, a great majority of those concerned see the three as sufficiently distinct in purpose to warrant the preservation of their separate identity. We concur with this view, which is indeed implicit in the proposals we have already made for their development, involving for example quite different patterns of relationship with the department.

5.81 The question then arises, should these differences in purpose continue to be reflected in the awards (degrees, diplomas and certificates) which they make to the students who complete their courses? One aspect of this question was examined by an Advisory Council on Educational Planning working party which in October 1971 issued a report on *Technical and Industrial Academic Awards*. A majority of that working party recommended against conferring a power to grant degrees on institutions other than universities, whilst recognising the possibility that in due course such institutions might need to introduce courses in "applied" disciplines at a level sufficiently advanced to be equivalent in academic content and duration to a first degree. Since then there has been a growing desire, especially among teachers college staff, for degree-granting powers; the possibilities of higher academic awards are also being reviewed in technical institute circles.

5.82 It is necessary carefully to distinguish at this point between three related questions. First, is it appropriate that institutions other than universities should offer courses equivalent in academic content and duration to a first degree? We would answer, that occasionally this may be justified, whilst adding that it would, in our view, be unfortunate if the technical institutes and teachers colleges, whose separate identity is warranted as we have seen by a set of responsibilities in the field of vocational training quite distinct from those of the universities, set about transforming themselves into university-type institutions. The country's need for appropriately trained technicians, tradesmen, and teachers should not be subordinated to institutional aspirations towards a "higher" academic status; the inverted commas are a reminder of the need to distinguish between more advanced teaching and better teaching.

5.83 Second, is it appropriate that where courses of a greater academic content and duration are offered by institutions other than universities, more liberal cross-credits should be permitted by the universities? To that we would answer that it would certainly be

incumbent on the universities to review their cross-credit provisions (each university, we must mention, acts independently in this regard), and that there is a presumption that they should be liberalised, but that the final decision must be made bearing in mind the purpose of cross-credit provisions, namely the transfer of students from one institution and programme to another. The effects, for example, of increasing to 3 years the length of the primary teachers college course, and of recruiting to it preponderantly from applicants with University Entrance, may well be substantially to improve the general academic background and ability of those who complete the course; but it does not follow that their specific preparation in a given university subject can be presumed (without detailed investigation) to equip a transferring student successfully to embark on a third-year course—still less a post-graduate programme—in that subject.

5.84 Finally, is it appropriate that where courses equivalent in academic content and duration to a first degree are offered by a non-university institution, it (or some national awarding body, on its behalf) be empowered to grant degrees? Bearing in mind the distinctiveness of each type of tertiary institution, we see disadvantages in this proposal from three sides. From the university's point of view it would be objectionable, for the reason just noted. A 3-year non-university course of vocational training, however meritorious for its specific purpose, cannot be presumed (without detailed investigation) to equip a transferring student to embark on a post-graduate programme. To compel a university to admit such a student to such a programme on the strength of a non-university degree would thus be wrong both for the university and the student; but to authorise the university to disregard non-university degrees would introduce a new set of distinctions which would substantially negate the purpose of calling the non-university awards "degrees". From the community's point of view, such a change would also create unnecessary confusion, since the different nature and purpose of "degree" courses of study would necessitate asking "what kind of degree, from what institution?" From the point of view of the non-university institutions it would also have disadvantages, in depriving them of the opportunity to achieve a special status among the public for their own distinctive awards. In the last analysis, such a status must be earned; it cannot be acquired simply by borrowing a name. We do not doubt the capacity of non-university institutions to earn it by special excellence in their own fields of endeavour, and when they have done so we doubt that they will wish to sell themselves short by awarding "degrees" which obscure their own distinctiveness.

5.85 We recognise, however, that a niggardly approach on the part of the universities toward cross-crediting of courses of a reputable standard and academic content taken elsewhere would intensify the demand for degree-granting status for non-university institutions, in an attempt to secure through legislation what has not been achieved through negotiation. It is in this sense that *we believe that the solution of the problem of non-university awards lies in an effective policy of cross-crediting.*

5.86 We conclude this chapter with a quotation which should, we believe, be borne in mind by all who share in policy making for tertiary education. "Properly understood," says John W. Gardner*, "the university is the instrument for *one kind of further education.* It should not be regarded as the only passport to a meaningful life or the sole means of establishing one's human worth."

*Quoted in Barzun, J. *The American University*, O.U.P., London, 1969, p. 234.

Chapter 6 CONTINUING EDUCATION

The Present Situation Described

6.1 In this chapter we shall be dealing, in the main, with adult education. The term "continuing education", meaning the deliberate education of those whose main occupation is no longer that of student, is more precise, in that it includes some part-time studies undertaken by older adolescents and excludes the continued full-time schooling for example of young-adult Ph.D. students. "Continuing education" moreover encompasses both vocational and non-vocational studies, whereas in New Zealand (as in Great Britain) "adult education" has traditionally been used only of study undertaken for its own sake, not for vocational or examination purposes. Here we must concern ourselves with the wider area, recognising the growing importance of occupational retraining and updating owing to rapid changes in technology. However, we exclude from this chapter part-time study in technical institutes and universities preparatory to a career, as being (like similar full-time study) more appropriately classified as tertiary education.

6.2 The boundary line between tertiary and continuing education is thus an imprecise one at some points, depending on the motivation of the student. A course in navigation or pilotage may be tertiary education for a would-be master mariner, and continuing education for a yachtsman. However, it is sufficient for our purposes to note that for some students, some ordinary courses in technical institutes and universities constitute continuing education. This will be more often the case in universities in New Zealand than in some overseas countries, owing to the provisions for part-time and extramural study, and for special admission of adults who lack the normal entrance qualifications. (In 1972 there were about 9,500 part-time and about 3,700 extramural students enrolled at New Zealand universities, and of the students embarking in 1972 on first-year university courses 5.5 percent were adults specially admitted.) In a real sense New Zealand already has an open university, especially through the services of Massey University's Extramural Department, even though it does not use all the teaching methods of the British counterpart.

6.3 In addition, the universities provide specifically for the needs of those seeking continuing education, through courses arranged by their extension department. These are designed mainly for business and professional groups, and for people with well-established fields of study. In addition to the traditional

evening classes, they now often take the form of weekend seminars, discussion groups and field studies, and they are not confined to the university centres. For instance, the 1973 programme of the Department of Extension Studies of Massey University provides classes in cities such as Napier and Hastings, and in such smaller centres as Dannevirke, Waipawa, Wairoa, and Bulls; it caters for teachers, nurses, business executives, students of the natural sciences, and for people with a sustained interest in philosophy, psychology, or Maori culture. Throughout the country as a whole there were in 1972 almost 24,000 enrolments in university extension classes.

6.4 During the past generation there has been a rapid expansion of continuing education of a vocational type. It is impossible to estimate the number of people participating in this, since it has been provided not only by university extension departments and technical institutes but also in the training programmes and advisory services of Government departments, and in courses run by the larger industrial and commercial firms for their employees. The Vocational Training Council has helped to co-ordinate and extend activities in this area. Through its industrial training boards it has forged strong links with industry and the technical institutes, and encouraged the development of a flexible structure of technical institute courses of varying lengths, levels, and character, designed to meet changing industrial needs. Courses can thus be established in any substantial vocational area where a need is seen to exist, not only for career preparation but also for continuing education in the form of occupational retraining and updating.

6.5 Vocational classes may also be conducted in secondary schools, typically in the evening, where there is no technical institute. The relevant statistics embrace not only trade, technician, and professional training but also second-chance education, i.e., classes for those who have left school and who wish to take such exminations as School Certificate. In July 1972 almost 15,000 people were enrolled in vocational evening classes (thus defined) at secondary schools.

6.6 Some secondary schools also organise non-vocational evening classes, often colloquially referred to as "hobby" classes, under the Manual and Technical Regulations 1937. In July 1972, about 23,000 people were enrolled in such classes. Over four-fifths of these were in the domestic or creative arts (for example, dressmaking, woodwork, pottery, art, and craft), and of the rest a substantial number were "keep fit" classes.

6.7 The other main providers of non-vocational continuing education, apart from the university extension departments and the secondary schools, are voluntary organisations. Among these the Workers' Educational Association stands out, as the one body solely concerned with continuing education. It exists in six districts (the four main centres, together with New Plymouth and Invercargill) and in 1972 almost 8,000 people were enrolled in its courses. Many other voluntary organisations, such as the Countrywomen's Institutes and the play centre movement, provide continuing education among their activities. Some indication of the variety of voluntary organisations thus involved is supplied in appendix G of *Lifelong Education*, a 1972 report by a committee set up by the New Zealand National Commission for UNESCO.

6.8 A degree of co-ordination of non-vocational continuing education as a whole is provided by the National Council of Adult Education, a statutory body with a small staff, which advises the Director-General of Education and the University Grants Committee.

Review of the Present Situation

6.9 One's assessment of the situation just described depends largely on a prior judgment about the potential demand for non-vocational continuing education. On the one hand, there is evidence that the clientele for further education tends to be drawn from the better-educated minority of the adult population. (This applies to WEA and to secondary school evening classes as well as—though not to such a marked extent as—to university extension classes*. It leaves open the possibility that the majority may pursue further education in less formal ways, for instance, by using libraries, or viewing the more educative television programmes.) This may well mean that few except those who have as children been most successful at school will be willing to resume schooling as adults; and since formal continuing education is—save for some employer-provided training—voluntary and likely to remain so, it will continue to be confined to a minority. On this view, the present system may well be satisfying most of the non-vocational demands, except perhaps in districts not fully served by university extension and voluntary associations, hence growth will be mainly in vocational continuing education (specifically, the updating of professional and technical knowledge, and retraining for new occupations or responsibilities).

*See Boshier, R. "The Participants", in *Australian Journal of Adult Education*, XI (1), 1971, cited in *Lifelong Education*, p. 53.

6.10 The contrary view, exemplified in the report on *Lifelong Education* to which we have already referred, is that the potential clientele for continuing education should not be assumed to be anything less than the whole community. The existing pattern of demand is no indication of the potential, partly because efforts to publicise and indeed to "sell" what is presently available have been minimal, and partly because what is presently available reflects the limitations of the organisations which provide it. For example, the courses offered by university extension departments are of an academic type, hence tend to attract a graduate clientele. Under the provisions of the 1947 Adult Education Act, adult education staff were attached administratively to the universities, but they were expected to provide a wider range of courses, designed by the four regional councils of adult education created by that Act; however, their university allegiance prevailed, and the regional councils—thereby prevented from fulfilling these wider purposes—were eventually abolished by the 1963 Adult Education Act. It was thus left to voluntary organisations such as the WEA, and to the secondary schools, to offer non-vocational courses of a less academic type; but the voluntary organisations generally lack professional staff for this purpose, and the secondary schools have, by and large, shown little initiative either in the range of courses offered (which are, as we have seen, predominantly "hobby" classes) or in their organisation and teaching methods. If these contentions are true, then it may be constraints such as these, rather than any inherent limitations, which explain the present pattern of demand for non-vocational continuing education.

6.11 The *Lifelong Education* report makes a further point which should be noted in this connection, relating to needs rather than to demands. It sees non-vocational continuing education not merely as a source of individual enjoyment and recreation, but also as a means of averting or alleviating social problems. This can partly be achieved directly, it is suggested, through what we might broadly term "life-adjustment" courses, in such obvious fields as preparation for marriage, education for parents of pre-school children, and preparation for retirement, but also, for example, in English language classes for foreign migrants, training in budgeting for low-income families, aiding adaptation to urban life for Maori and other Polynesian groups, and confidence-building for married women about to re-enter the work force. A modest beginning has already been made in several such areas. It can also partly be achieved indirectly, through better training for community leaders, youth workers, and volunteers in a variety of organisations which help others to deal with problems of adjustment.

6.12 We shall return later in this chapter to consider a strategy for continuing education in the light of these conflicting assessments of what might be achieved. In completing this review of the current situation, we can, however, note one point on which there is widespread agreement. What is presently being done, and whatever may additionally be done in future, in the fields both of vocational and of non-vocational continuing education, would be of higher quality if there were some provision for training those who are to teach adults. The *Lifelong Education* report calls continuing education "almost the last outpost of amateurism", and notes that with the exception of the training within industry system, the preparation of adult educators is at best occasional and spasmodic. A variety of programmes will doubtless be needed for this purpose, and *in our view the organisations best able (if suitably strengthened) to design and provide them are the teachers colleges.* The subcommittee of this working party which recently investigated the Christchurch Teachers College envisaged it developing such programmes; *we recommend that initially that college be encouraged rapidly to do so, and that in the light of its experience the possibility be considered of extending such activities to other teachers colleges.*

The Secondary School and the Community School

6.13 The secondary school, as we have indicated, is currently often an important agency of non-vocational continuing education, albeit of a somewhat limited type, namely evening "hobby" classes. If there is to be an increase in non-vocational continuing education of a less academic kind than that provided by university extension, the secondary school (or senior college, if such be established) is accordingly a possible instrumentality, in two ways. It might itself offer a wider range of programmes for adults; and it might make its facilities more widely available to groups in the local community for their own educational and allied purposes.

6.14 Some secondary schools, especially perhaps those which serve country towns and the surrounding rural area, are heavily involved in such activities. From a submission we received from the board of one such school with 1,400 pupils, we have selected the following illustrations of the variety of links which may exist with the local community:

School-organised evening classes: primarily an extension of the school programme (no tertiary education is available locally); secretarial courses for office workers are planned.

Group-organised courses: for example, business management, civil defence, defensive driving, Young Farmers' Club courses.

Facilities for local committees: for example, the Astronomical Society, Civic Music Council, Mountain Safety Committee, Old Boys' Hockey Association, Road Safety Committee, meet at the school.

Sports facilities: used, for example, by the Athletic Club, Netball Association, Tennis Association, and by members of the public; public use of the school's new swimming pool is planned.

Music facilities: used by the local choir and pipe band, also by various examining boards.

Films and lecture facilities: frequently used by community groups, local employers, etc.

Cooking facilities: used by Girl Guides.

Work experience classes: supported by 80 local employers.

Community service: pupils and staff assist, for example, in collections for charity, hospital visiting, and in support for welfare activities (Red Cross, Intellectually Handicapped Children, etc.) for community projects, and, for example, for metrication.

6.15 Continuing education can thus be seen as one among several activities which may link schools (especially secondary schools, because of their size and range of facilities) with their local community.

6.16 There are obvious economic reasons for maximising the return on society's massive investment in school buildings, grounds, and equipment by making them as widely available to adult members of the community as is consistent with pupil need. However, some would maintain that there are important social and educational, as well as economic, reasons for integrating the school into the life of the community, for example, to foster closer parent-teacher relations, to provide opportunities "for adults and senior pupils to acquire valuable experience in working together",* and to accustom adults to regard non-vocational continuing education as one of a range of recreations and entertainments available at the school-cum-community-centre.

6.17 "Community school" is the not very revealing appellation which has become accepted to refer to such a school-cum-community-centre. We wish we could think of a better one; "school and centre", although a mouthful, might be preferable, in enabling adolescents and young adults to talk of "going to the centre" rather

*_Lifelong Education_, p. 76.

than to "the school". Our attention has been drawn to entities of this kind in several countries overseas, for example, in France, Sweden, the U.S.A., and in several parts of England (Cambridgeshire, Leicestershire, and Cumberland among them). Compared with the community-involved secondary schools in this country which we have already described, they are more highly evolved to meet community needs, generally in two ways: they have been designed and built to cater for adult as well as pupil activities, and they are staffed to provide not only teaching for pupils but also continuing education (and perhaps also recreation) for adults.

6.18 There are already some signs of at least the beginnings of similar developments in this country. A Wellington High School project provides courses for adults during school hours, with appropriate additional accommodation for teaching and administering them. Pilot projects are being undertaken at two Auckland secondary schools, Rutherford High School, and Aorere College, which have been given authority to appoint a head of department for community studies, to work with a local advisory committee in assessing needs for continuing education in their areas and to introduce appropriate programmes.

6.19 Most striking of all, the second secondary school at Mangere is being designed as a community school, planned and financed by several Government departments (Education, Works, Social Welfare, Maori and Island Affairs, Internal Affairs) and by the Manukau City Council and the Auckland Regional Authority. It will have the usual secondary school accommodation (classrooms, laboratories, gymnasium, auditorium, library, art and craft block), with additional storage in view of joint use by pupils and adults; but, in addition, it will have a two-storeyed "community" building, to be used during as well as out of school hours, containing a hall for social functions, committee rooms, further storage facilities, a creche, a cafeteria, small rooms for group activities, a quiet room for older people, and administrative offices. A heated covered swimming pool will serve the school, the adjoining intermediate school, and the community.

6.20 These are interesting, even exciting, developments. Since we feel it our responsibility, from the standpoint of organisation and administration, to point out some problems which lie ahead, we must stress at the outset that we are strongly in favour of close links between school and community and welcome these innovations as worth-while experiments which when evaluated in the light of experience should materially assist in devising policies for continuing education. We shall have occasion, later in this chapter, to raise the question of how autonomous the "providing agencies"

for continuing education (whether community schools or otherwise) should be. For the moment, we confine our attention to problems which may arise at the level of the individual secondary school or community school which may embark on an expanded programme of continuing education and other community-related activities.

6.21 Some problems are already apparent from the experience of secondary schools which are currently involved in such activities. A questionnaire, addressed to secondary schools (203 of which replied) on behalf of the Educational Priorities Conference, elicited the following numbers of positive responses about material problems they had encountered in making their facilities thus available to the public:

Interference with valuable equipment	54
School furniture wrong size	24
Personal property left in classrooms	38
Cleaning problems	117
Lavatory and cloakroom problems	70
Breakages and damage (for example, to lights, windows, fences)	83
Storage of school equipment	66
Holiday cleaning	84
Interference with pupils' work	19
Lack of suitable facilities	55
Unsuitability of grounds (including lack of parking space)	27

6.22 Many of these responses are, in a sense, arguments in favour of a fully-developed community school, designed to cater for the needs of adults as well as of pupils, hence with appropriate furniture and equipment, toilets and parking spaces, and storage. (Breakages and cleaning problems must doubtless be seen as costs inevitably arising from more intensive use of the plant.) Bearing in mind, however, that few secondary schools will, during the next decade or two, have been designed for adult use, the effect of increasing that use by providing continuing education staff for the school may well be to intensify the listed problems, hence to generate some backlash both in the school and among adult users. It may well be decided that this is a risk which should be run, in the interests of expanding continuing education. We merely note that the risk should not be overlooked, and that pressures for capital spending (for special buildings, special rooms, or at least for special furniture, equipment, and storage space for adult users) are likely to arise.

6.23 To the extent that continuing education is expanded through specially-designed community schools, or through secondary schools modified and added to for adult use, other problems will arise, especially in the areas of staffing and control. We have already mentioned the need for specific training for adult educators; the lack of suitably trained staff may well limit for the time being the rate at which community schools (and community colleges) can be formed. Admittedly, there may be some scope for recruiting from those secondary schools which have been most active in meeting community needs, but only at the expense of their own programmes; clearly, Paul should borrow from Peter rather than poach from him, till trained staff are more readily available.

6.24 Control, too, will present problems, at the level of the individual institution as well as in the system as a whole. The principal will bear a double responsibility: to his school, and to the local community. There is plenty of evidence (for example, in the "Bursars" Report) to show that secondary principals are already overburdened with administrative duties, especially in large schools —and many secondary schools have more than 1,000 pupils. At one time, personal influence over his pupils was a characteristic attribute of the headmaster. This has already been eroded by administration, and it will be even further reduced if the principal incurs greatly increased responsibilities. Yet unless the principal actively interests himself in a community school's wider activities, their success must be in doubt. Again, this is not presented as an argument against community schools, but merely as a reminder that they will carry with them certain inescapable costs. Education for community development, however well planned, is more susceptible to unforeseen changes than almost any other form of educational activity. There will be times when every community school principal will ask himself whether improvisation to meet a real but possibly temporary need is not after all to be preferred to organising to meet all eventualities. The middle path is often hard to find.

6.25 This said, we are of the opinion that the following conditions need to be met in the establishment of community schools:

(1) The decision to establish such a school should be preceded by a detailed feasibility study showing that such an institution is not only needed but wanted, and that the local authority is ready and willing to offer full co-operation.

(2) While there is good reason to believe that pupils have much to gain from association with older members of the community, at no stage must the educational interests of those pupils be sacrificed to social theory.

(3) To control the activities of both sections of the complex, there must be a single appropriately constituted governing body. The statutory provisions governing the composition of secondary boards of governors will need reviewing, to ensure adequate representation of community as well as school interests.

(4) If the governing board appoints special committees, they should be representative of the board as a whole, even though called on to deal with only one side of the school's activities. It would be damaging to harmonious relations if, owing to unrepresentative composition, the decisions of such a committee were to be reversed by the full board.

(5) The principal should be the board's executive officer for the whole complex; he should have one deputy for school activities, and one for community activities.

(6) The positions of the principal and his two deputies should be considered special appointments, and should if possible be made at an early stage of the project so that they can share in its planning, and undertake any necessary training.

(7) At least some staff members of the school unit, preferably those in contact with upper classes, should also have some teaching duties in the community unit. (Clearly some revision of the 1937 Manual and Technical Regulations is needed, not to say overdue, but since the department is currently proceeding with this, we need not elaborate the point.)

(8) Every effort must be made to avoid segregating the two units. To maintain standards in the school, whilst encouraging joint activities among school and community units, will call for considerable administrative talent.

The Community College

6.26 We have already described, in chapter 4 above, the proposed community college, and shall not recapitulate the points there made, except to recall that one of its proposed major functions is to provide continuing education in accordance with the present Government's policy to "ensure the availability to all New Zealanders of forms of continuing education at community colleges, universities, and allied institutions according to the requirements and background of the student".

6.27 A community college thus conceived resembles the community school which we have just discussed in that it has a dual responsibility; it conducts certain programmes for its own

students, but also provides a service for the community by offering courses for adults and by making available facilities for interested groups and members of the general public. Accordingly, several of the points which we have made in the preceding section of this chapter will apply to community colleges too.

6.28 The community college differs from the community school in two main respects, one obvious, the other perhaps less so. First, it is (apart from its community services) not a secondary school but a small technical institute. Second, its community responsibilities have been envisaged as regional, not merely local, in scope. We shall return shortly to note the significance of its technical institute characteristics. Meanwhile, its proposed regional responsibilities in adult education call for some discussion.

6.29 The feasibility study *A Hawke's Bay Community College* gives us the only detailed picture yet available of what a New Zealand community college may be and do. In the field of continuing education it proposes to shift the initiative from the Hawke's Bay secondary schools to a community college at Taradale, which would in effect be a sub-university counterpart, within its own region, to the extension department of a university. The college would constitute the base for a small professional staff of adult educators (four are envisaged) who would each year design and supervise a programme for the region, which would replace and amplify the evening classes presently organised by the secondary schools. Admittedly, many of the same courses might continue to be conducted by the same teachers in the same schools; but the responsibility for deciding whether a course should be offered, who should teach it, and where, would now rest with the continuing education staff at Taradale. While some amplification of the present programme is contemplated, in such fields as arts and crafts, music and drama, the main innovations in the proposed non-vocational programme appear to be first the training of voluntary workers (especially for social welfare, youth leadership, and child care), and second a development of recreational training for young people (mainly to provide skills for trampers and yachtsmen). These proposed innovations are merely preliminary indications of possibilities; the feasibility study envisages that the eventual programme would be designed after testing local demand, by surveys and by advisory committees.

6.30 One aspect of the proposed community college which is not fully explored in the Hawke's Bay feasibility study is the extent to which a regional institution of this type should attempt to provide a focus for the activity of outside organisations, as a community school would do. The feasibility study sees it "as providing a con-

genial setting for a wide range of adult activities and a stimulus to like-minded people pursuing studies of mutual interest",* and proposes that it be provided with a music/drama building sufficiently large and well-equipped to make it a focus of the performing arts, attracting the support of musical and dramatic societies. Yet we are doubtful that, except where it can offer expensive facilities not available elsewhere, a centre at Taradale can rely on becoming the natural meeting place for local organisations based exclusively on either Napier or Hastings let alone on Wairoa or Waipukurau; and to the extent that its courses do not depend on facilities available only at Taradale, they may well be conducted elsewhere, "in places like the Napier Museum, Keirunga Gardens, the YMCA and other established premises".† Time alone will show how many of its continuing education classes should be campus-based and how many an extension activity. While concentration on courses of the former type would make it more like a community school, the community thus served would probably be a local one, and its regional responsibilities would accordingly be less effectively met.

6.31 The other comment we must make about the community college concept arises from the proposed combination within a single organisation of a technical institute and a continuing education unit. This is one way of making available professional organisers of adult education outside the university extension system. It is not however, the only way, and it runs the risk of imparting a bias to the development of continuing education, much as the attachment of adult educators to the universities did under the 1947 Adult Education Act. As we have already noted (para 6.10 above), the effect of that attachment was increasingly to confine the professionally-organised programmes to subject-matter appropriate to a university. There is, we think, a real possibility that the forms of continuing education most likely to commend themselves to the staff and governing bodies of community colleges (and it is those governing bodies which in the last analysis will control developments) will be those deemed appropriate to a technical institute. The outcome may well be an emphasis on a limited range of vocational continuing education, together with related hobby classes (for example, in carpentry and metalwork), and the proposed advisory committees may prove no more effective than were the regional councils of adult education which were abolished in 1963.

6.32 *This is not to say that the community college at Taradale should not proceed as planned. It will be an interesting experiment, and its impact on continuing education in the Hawke's Bay region should be carefully*

*Op. cit., p. 65. †Ibid., p. 59.

evaluated. We doubt, however, that it constitutes a model for the rest of the country, and in the next section of this chapter we shall propose an alternative which we believe to be at least equally deserving of a trial.

A Possible Strategy for Continuing Education

6.33 In the preceding two sections of this chapter we have discussed secondary schools, community schools, and community colleges. These are possible instrumentalities (as are university extension departments and voluntary organisations) for expanding the scope of continuing education, especially of a non-vocational type. However, before choices can usefully be made among possible instrumentalities there must be greater clarity about purposes and priorities.

6.34 To expand the scope of continuing education necessarily means to commit more resources to that field of activity. At several points in the preceding discussion, reference has been made to the need for new or extended buildings, for appropriate furniture and equipment, and for additional and appropriately-trained staff even though every effort be made to use more intensively the plant which already exists. Nothing has yet been said, however, about where the extra resources are to come from; and if (as is commonly assumed) the community as a whole is to pay via the Consolidated Fund, further questions arise: by what criteria is the Government to decide on the relative importance of greater spending on continuing education as against other social expenditure, and on one type of continuing education as against another?

6.35 Elsewhere in this report we have confined our attention to matters of organisation and administration, disregarding the political decisions about what is to be organised and administered except to ensure that adequate information and advice are available to those who must make such decisions. We do not intend in the present instance to depart from this practice, by making recommendations about relative priorities. However, we do feel it necessary to emphasise the importance, and consequent policy implications, of priorities in the area of continuing education. If there is to be a significant expansion in that area, the Government (and the taxpaying public) face a fundamental choice. The expansion can either be in directions which are nationally regarded as being important enough to warrant priority, or in directions which reflect local demand from the consumers of adult education services. The two are by no means necessarily the same.

6.36 The problem is implicit in a number of possible developments which have already been discussed. For example, in para. 6.11 it was mentioned that some types of continuing education may help to avert or alleviate social problems either directly (through what we have called "life-adjustment" courses) or indirectly (through training voluntary social workers and youth leaders). The latter possibility receives some emphasis in the Hawke's Bay feasibility study. On the other hand, the prime assumption of the Hawke's Bay study, and of much of the other material which we have read, is that an organiser of adult education programmes should be in essence an entrepreneur, tailoring his product to local demand through a process akin to market research. The unstated assumption seems to be that what will locally be most in demand will conform with national priorities; but this, in our view, does not follow. The demand for life-adjustment courses might well be smaller than that for flower arrangement, or dry-fly tying, or improving one's bidding at bridge. Similarly, in dealing with recreational activities for young people the Hawke's Bay study mentions courses which might include mountain safety, better driving and road safety, which (together with water safety) command a degree of social priority. But what priority can be claimed, for example, by those who would prefer to reduce their golf handicap? And if facilities for other forms of recreation are to be provided free of cost, is it either fair or realistic to conclude that "coaching in team games can be left to the clubs"?*

6.37 Certainly, demand cannot be altogether ignored. There is no point in giving priority to courses for which there are no enrolments. But that is not to say that the public are under an obligation to supply free of cost every form of recreation or entertainment for which there is a substantial demand, as an extension to the system of free education. Indeed, one danger we see in a generally free provision, once it expands beyond the limits of the present secondary evening classes, is that a hostile public reaction against the least socially valuable courses may endanger the continued free provision of those which are most socially valuable. For the same reason, we are not satisfied that the problem will disappear if it is left to the professional adult educators in each district to interpose their own conceptions of social priority. Some will be more influenced by popular demand than others, and a hostile public reaction may be provoked by publicity arising from even a single district.

6.38 What we propose is not simply a return to the policy under which vocational and continuation evening classes were generally provided free, whilst persons enrolled in other secondary evening

*Ibid, p. 31.

classes had to pay a portion (about one-third) of the tutor's fee. Rather, *we favour a more flexible policy under which top-priority courses* (which might include some non-vocational courses, for example, for volunteer welfare workers, and which might not include all vocational courses) *would be free of cost to the student; lower-priority courses would require him to pay some contribution*, not necessarily the same proportion in all cases; *while the provision of purely recreational courses would either be left to voluntary and/or commercial organisations, or if undertaken by instrumentalities of public continuing education, would be fully charged for.*

6.39 Working out the pattern of priorities, and associated subsidies, would be a responsibility (under the Minister) of the head office of the department. A post of officer for continuing education has recently been established, and it would doubtless be his task to keep these under review. To avoid unnecessary reference of details from districts to head office, professional staff at district level should be kept informed of the current classification of courses for subsidy purposes, and empowered to design their programmes in accordance with that classification. Paper work would also be reduced if subsidies were based on notional costs per student hour for various types of course, leaving the district authority to balance out any small profits and losses arising from specific courses.

6.40 This brings us to the question of district organisation. We accept two elements of the community college concept, namely that subsidised courses should be programmed for a district as a whole, not left to the independent initiatives of its secondary schools, and that the programming should be done by a nucleus of professional continuing education staff. However, we see some risk in attaching these staff to a specific course-providing institution, with its own loyalties and its own predispositions about programmes. Certainly we see no harm in an adult-education organiser being assigned an office at such an institution —or indeed at more than one, if he frequently tours his district—but he should not be subject in his professional activities to the control of its governing body.

6.41 Who, then, should control him? If not a specific school or college or university, there are three possibilities: the department, or an ad hoc district body, or a multi-purpose regional authority. Given that the department can influence programme priorities through the proposed system of subsidies, we believe that some form of district /regional body is to be preferred, giving greater scope for local initiative. For the time being, this may have to be an ad hoc authority—a reconstituted regional council for adult education; but if (as seems likely) a structure of multi-purpose regional or "united" authorities is created, we see clear advantages in their taking over responsibility for the subsidised forms of continuing

education. Already the Auckland Regional Authoirty has felt the need to establish a community activities section, mainly concerned so far with recreational rather than wider educational services, though the authority has taken steps (through Auckland University and the Manukau Technical Institute) to provide courses in leadership training for youth groups and community organisations. It has also been involved (see para. 6.19 above) in the planning of the proposed community school at Mangere. Bearing in mind the statement by the National Development Conference Social and Cultural Committee that "local government has a responsibility to provide for the total life of the community and not just for material needs", we see the field of continuing education as a natural one for a multi-purpose authority, provided that its district is of an appropriate size; and the likely size of districts of the proposed regional authorities is in our view appropriate, being on the one hand larger than that of municipalities and counties, and, on the other, smaller than that of most education board districts, university districts, or department regions.

6.42 Eventually, then, *we envisage the district nucleus of professional staff in continuing education being employed by the regional authority,* and controlled by its committee on continuing education (on which, we would hope, there would be an appropriate selection of co-opted members). *In the meantime, they would be employed and controlled by a regional council for continuing education, which would be financed by a Government grant for the purpose, be serviced wherever possible by an education board, and would (we suggest) be appointed by the Minister of Education* so as to contain an appropriate selection of local authority members, university extension staff, WEA officers (where that organisation is active), school principals, and interested members of the lay public. The National Council of Adult Education would doubtless be able to advise the Minister about their composition.

6.43 *The regional council (or authority), aided by one or more professional organisers, would be responsible for approving the programme of subsidised courses within its district.* Although its professional staff would play a key role, they could, in our view, be few in number; in many districts a single officer, with clerical assistance, would probably be sufficient. They would be planners, organisers, and co-ordinators, rather than teachers; their main job would be to appraise the demands and needs for continuing education within their district, in the light of the national priorities embodied in the current classification of courses for subsidy purposes, and to stimulate the course-providing agencies (secondary schools, community schools, community colleges, technical institutes, and voluntary organisations) to offer, in appropriate localities, such courses as taken

together would constitute an integrated programme for the district as a whole. They might well also be given the responsibility for publicising the courses offered, and provided with a budget for that purpose.

6.44 To the extent that the resulting expansion in demand for continuing education justified the provision of extra teaching positions, they would be needed within the course-providing agencies, not in the office of the regional council (or authority), and the funds for them would accrue from the Government subsidy and (where appropriate) the fees which the course-providing agency would receive from the regional council (or authority) in reimbursement of its costs. It is to be expected that such agencies as community schools and community colleges, and some secondary schools, will be relied on by the regional council (or authority) for a regular and substantial course-offering each year. Accordingly, our scheme would in no way prevent the emergence of community schools or community colleges with important responsibilities in continuing education. The essential difference between the proposals of the Taradale feasibility study and our own is that we would entrust to the regional council (or authority), and not to a community college, the responsibility for co-ordinating the district programme; but the continuing education staff of a community college might well keep the district organiser supplied with a valuable flow of ideas about possible programme developments.

6.45 We have left on one side, in the preceding discussion, the relationship between the district programme to be formulated by a regional council (or authority) and the activities of the university extension departments. Until the new machinery has been constructed and run in, it would clearly be premature to impose on it the responsibility for integrating university extension activities with other forms of continuing education. Even then, it must be borne in mind that university districts will continue to be considerably larger than the proposed regions, hence that no region will be able to regard a university extension department as merely another among its course-providing agencies. Accordingly, it may well be that a two-tier system, with appropriate liaison at regional and national levels, will prove appropriate even in the long run.

6.46 Certainly, *as long as such liaison at the national level is needed (and possibly longer), there must continue to be a National Council of Adult (or Continuing) Education in some form;* if any proposals for making continuing education a responsibility of regional government are accepted, provision should, however, be made for adequate representation of regional authorities on the national council. Apart from its liaison function, the national council and its staff may in an

expanded system for continuing education serve a variety of other useful purposes, for example, in designing and producing material (such as broadcasts, tapes discussion group material, and correspondence courses) for teaching at a distance, on which the regions could draw.

Continuing Education for Teachers

6.47 In the preceding discussion we have not attempted to draw a hard-and-fast line between vocational and non-vocational continuing education. The Vocational Training Council, the university extension departments, and the regional authorities will each in their various ways become aware of vocational needs, and take steps to meet them. However, in investigating the educational system we must give special consideration to the vocational needs of those, especially teachers and inspectors, who work within that system.

6.48 At the present time, the department is responsible for a variety of schemes for such continuing professional education. They include in-service training courses, both residential and non-residential; payment of salary during advanced training, for example, for the Diploma in Educational Psychology at Auckland University, the Diploma in Education (Guidance) at Canterbury University, and the Endorsed Certificate for Teachers of the Deaf at Auckland or Christchurch Teachers College; and limited schemes of study leave with pay, especially to enable selected teachers to pursue a full-time year of university study to complete a degree. Advanced courses (taken by 1,500 teachers a year) are also available through the Correspondence School.

6.49 Various proposals for extending these provisions are currently under discussion between the department and the professional associations of primary teachers, secondary teachers, and of tutors in technical institutes and teachers colleges. Possible developments have recently been reviewed in a report, *The Continuing Education of Teachers*, prepared by the Advisory Council on Educational Planning's Standing Committee on Teacher Training. One stimulus to increased demands has clearly been the proposals of the James Committee* for England and Wales, which claims on the one hand that it is through improved in-service education and training "that both the quality of education and the standards of the profession can be most speedily, powerfully, and economically improved", and proposes on the other that teachers be entitled to study leave, initially on the basis of one term each 7 years, but increasing as soon as possible to one term in 5 years.

* *Teacher Education and Training*, Department of Education and Science, London 1972.

6.50 *Although we would require a good deal more evidence, of a cost/benefit nature, before we were persuaded that periodic entitlement to study leave should be automatic, we are satisfied that there is a strong case for some extensions on continuing education for teachers.* We have in mind especially the need for short courses for each teacher during his first 3 years of service, on the lines suggested by the ACEP Committee; for additional training for those who are moving into administrative positions; for increased opportunities for acquiring and updating specialised skills, whether as subject specialists or in such fields as special education or student guidance; and for the retraining of married women who are returning to teaching after several years' absence. While we expect that much would be achieved in these directions through short courses, courses held during vacations, and (in some cases) through university or Correspondence School extramural study, we believe that there is also a case for some extension to the selective study-leave scheme, and for making it available not only to those completing a degree but also for other forms of study or research. We have in mind the benefits which the educational system has already derived from those hand-picked individuals who have been recipients of awards from the British Council, the Woolf Fisher Trust, the U.S. Educational Foundation, the NZEI Travel Fellowship, the Teacher Development Grant, the McKenzie Education Foundation, or the Winston Churchill Memorial Trust.

6.51 Save for release on salary to complete a degree or an advanced qualification, we expect study leave of a sabbatical nature to be confined to such leaders of the profession as the senior staff of teachers colleges and technical institutes, inspectors of schools, selected principals, and senior professional officers in the Department of Education. Accordingly, the main thrust of expanded professional training for teachers will be through in-service courses for purposes such as we have already described. In discussing the administrative organisation needed to achieve this expansion, it is in our view useful to distinguish, as in the previous section of this chapter, between programme-approving and course-providing authorities.

6.52 *Responsibility for approving programmes of in-service courses must be a matter for the department, in collaboration with the teachers' professional organisations* (NZEI/PPTA or subject associations, as the case may be). Within the department, both the inspectorate and the Curriculum Development Unit will have an important contribution to make; line responsibility will rest with the superintendent of teacher training. It has been suggested, for example, by ACEP's Standing Committee on Teacher Training, that this post be upgraded to director level. This suggestion conflicts with the department's own reorganisation proposals (to be discussed in the next chapter) which

aim *inter alia* at integrating teacher training with the department's other personnel functions. In our view, the department should proceed with its present plans. If a change in status for the officer in charge of teacher training were ultimately decided on, it should, moreover, then be related to the pattern of the department's organisation for tertiary education as a whole.

6.53 Among the possible course-providing authorities are the department itself, the universities, the technical insitutes, and the teachers colleges. There will always be a role for departmental courses, both at the national level (for example to provide training for inspectors, to explore proposals for curriculum development, and to prepare some teachers for administrative responsibilities) and at the district level (for selected groups, such as senior principals). There will also be scope for the universities and technical institutes to provide (as part of the nationally devised programme of in-service training) specific non-credit courses for certain subject specialists. However, *the main change which we propose, in the actual running of in-service courses, is a progressive increase in the proportion of courses conducted within teachers colleges.* This would make for closer contact between the teachers colleges and the profession, would provide a desirable feedback into pre-service training and, by enabling teachers college staff to design advanced courses, would strengthen the colleges themselves. By careful planning, making use of teachers college facilities for short in-service courses while pre-service trainees are on section, there should be some scope for this without additional demands for buildings and equipment though some increase in staffing would be needed. There should also be some provision for offering longer in-service courses within the colleges.

Chapter 7 THE DEPARTMENT OF EDUCATION

Introduction

7.1 In this chapter, after briefly identifying the functions which make the department so important an element in the educational system, we shall consider in turn its head office and its regional structure. We shall then discuss a few related topics which emerged during our inquiry as of special significance, notably the role of the inspectorate, procedures for programming and approving buildings, and planning in the national administration of education, concluding with some comments on the desirability or otherwise of various national advisory bodies to supplement the department as a source of recommendations to the Minister.

7.2 In pursuing our inquiry we have tried to bear constantly in mind that deliberate education happens locally in classrooms and libraries, in laboratories and on field trips, through the guidance of learners by teachers. It is by their impact on this process that educational policies and administrative procedures are to be judged. We have, moreover, stressed that as far as possible, local schools should be run by local people, and district decisions made by district representatives, so that instead of uniformity there may be an appropriate diversity reflecting variations in local needs and circumstances, and affording an opportunity for experimentation.

7.3 *Despite this emphasis on decentralisation, it must be recognised that the department remains vitally important.* The funds available for education will continue to depend predominantly on the strength of the case which the Minister of Education, briefed by the department, puts forward each year. Moreover, this case may well reflect national as well as local or regional decisions on policies and priorities: the current and prospective expansion in pre-school education is a case in point. Even where programmes are to be devised at a district level, the resulting decisions may be shaped by national priorities, as we have suggested, for instance, in our proposals for differing subsidies for courses in continuing education. Furthermore, the scope for local or district discretion may properly be limited by a national insistence that standards (for example, of buildings, or in the provision of equipment) shall not fall below a prescribed minimum. Indeed, one reason for the tradition of strong central control in New Zealand education has been the desire to ensure an even distribution of educational facilities between different parts of the country, and between town and country.

7.4 Two other functions of the department merit special reference. First, to the extent that the system is decentralised, hence the discretion is vested in numerous authorities with responsibilities for specific institutions or sectors, it is the more important that there be some agency to oversee the system as a whole, and to identify points at which improved co-ordination is needed. The department alone is in a position to do this. Second, in some sectors of the system (as we have pointed out, when considering schools and technical institutes) the department can and should provide professional leadership, guiding and stimulating teachers towards improved performance, for example, through training programmes, through initiatives in curriculum development, through publications for teachers and for classroom use, and through the inspectorate (to be considered later in this chapter).

Head Office Reorganisation

7.5 It has not been possible in the course of a general and wide-ranging inquiry such as ours to investigate in depth the department's structure and procedures. For that purpose a team of management consultants would be needed, working continuously in its head office and at least one regional office for several months. From the evidence we received it became clear that there were differences of opinion about the role of the inspectorate, the procedures for programming and approving buildings, and the potential scope of the research and planning unit, which we shall consider in later sections of this chapter. Here we shall confine our attention to certain broad continuing problems of the structure and functioning of the department's head office to which the Currie Commission* called attention over a decade ago.

7.6 As we explained in the preceding section, one of the department's major responsibilities is to oversee the educational system as a whole, and to identify points at which improved co-ordination is needed. If the structure of its head office mirrors the several sectors into which that system is divided, it is better situated to exercise close control over each of those sectors individually, but less capable of improving co-ordination among them. The whole burden of such co-ordination will tend indeed to fall outside the line function of each sectorial directorate in head office, hence must be borne either by the processes of consultation between those directorates or by the department's top management in the course of co-ordinating them. *Our general inclination is to reduce the department's close control over*

**Report of the Commission on Education in New Zealand*, Wellington, 1962.

each sector by transferring, where possible, the power of decision-making to local or district institutions, and where the final decision must rest with the department, to delegate authority to its regional offices to the maximum feasible extent. Co-ordination, rather than control, would thus become the characteristic responsibility of head office in relation to the lower tiers of the system; and for purposes of co-ordination, its structure needs to be based less on sectors within the system (for example, primary and secondary education) than on functions common to the various sectors.

7.7 The "administrative" (as distinct from the "professional") divisions in head office have traditionally dealt not with sectors but with functions such as finance and buildings. The professional directorates have mainly been on sectorial lines, but even here a movement towards inter-sectorial organisation has occurred during the past decade, initially through the establishing (under the impetus of Currie Commission recommendations) of the Curriculum Development Unit, and more recently through the research and planning unit and the lately-established post of superintendent of teacher training. Special services (such as school publications, and the psychological and vocational guidance services) also transcend the sectorial division, as does the work of the officer for Maori and Island education. Nevertheless, the scope for functional co-ordination must remain limited, as long as the professional side of head office consists mainly of the primary, secondary, and technical directorates.

7.8 The department has for the past year been reviewing its own structure, and has invited us to consider the proposals for reorganisation resulting from that review. Among the most striking of these is the proposed replacement of the primary and secondary directorates by three functional directorates dealing respectively with schools, development, and personnel. For the reasons already stated, *we would welcome this major extension to organisation by function, provided it is coupled (as we understand it would be) with the necessary horizontal intermeshing between one section and another across directorate boundaries and between professional and administrative units.*

7.9 The directorate of technical education, and the newly-established post of officer for continuing education, are for the time being to remain as residues of sectorial organisation. As we explained in a previous chapter, we believe that for the next few years a strengthened technical directorate would be appropriate, and not inconsistent with increased autonomy for technical institutes in finance and curricula. Similarly, a small continuing education

section, immediately responsible to the Assistant Director-General (Professional), may well be needed while new policies in that field are being developed. In due course, however, we would expect these units to be incorporated into the functional framework. A further review of the department's organisation may well be needed in a few years' time, if greater autonomy for teachers colleges and technical institutes is granted as we recommend, and this change should then be considered.

Problems of Administrative /Professional Blending

7.10 We have spoken of the "administrative" and the "professional" sides of the department. What this means is that certain sections tend to be staffed by permanent civil servants, and others by former teachers; the latter, too, are engaged in administration, but they bring to the task front-line experience which sensitises them to certain implications of the issues and proposals with which the department deals.

7.11 An appropriate blend of administrative and professional officers is thus useful to the department. However, it inevitably carries with it certain risks and problems which cannot be eliminated once and for all, but constantly tend to recur. Among them are three which seem to us to merit discussion.

7.12 First, there are the problems of ensuring adequate co-ordination between administrative and professional sections. The department's business does not fall into two self-contained categories, those issues which can be disposed of by administrators alone and those which can be disposed of by "professionals" alone. Typically, issues which have some professional content will also need to be considered by administrative sections, such as those dealing with buildings or financial or legal matters, with the consequent risk of inadequate liaison, and of different sections working on aspects of the same issue without sufficient knowledge of each other's activities.

7.13 At the time of the Currie Commission, this problem was specially acute because the head office sections were dispersed over 20 or more sites in Wellington. That commission strongly urged consolidation, and also mentioned the need to house together the administrative and professional staff when new regional offices were established. The problems of physical dispersal have fortunately now been overcome, but contiguity does not of itself ensure adequate liaison. A limited improvement should result from the proposed reorganisation on functional lines; for instance, the directorate of personnel is to contain both administrative and professional units, among which co-ordination should be easier. But, however the

directorates and divisions are composed, there will always be some problems which overlap their boundaries, and some separation of administrative and professional sections is inevitable. Accordingly, *we welcome the department's proposal that each (professional) director should have attached to him a high-ranking member of the administrative staff as administration officer, one of whose purposes will be to provide a direct link with the administrative sections of the department, provided that the function of each director and his administration officer are clearly defined so as to avoid any confusion of responsibilities. Other links of this kind may well be needed to achieve effective co-ordination.*

7.18 The appointment of administration officers would also assist in dealing with the other two problems arising from the administrative/professional split. One is the need to provide career opportunities adequate to attract to and retain in the department enough well-qualified staff on the administrative side. The dangers are (to put it bluntly) that professionals will monopolise most of the top jobs, that the higher pay which they tend to receive in consequence of their professional status will give them the appearance of a favoured class, and hence that able and ambitious young administrative officers will prefer departments in which they are not thus underprivileged.

7.15 The Currie Commission noted the department's difficulties in recruiting administrative staff, but regarded them as symptomatic of staff shortages in the Public Service as a whole. So, to an extent, they are. For instance, the department needs a small group of very highly qualified finance officers, capable of devising and updating complex formulae for grants (in the absence of which, more staff are needed to deal with financial applications on an ad hoc basis); but we are informed by the State Services Commission that there is an acute service-wide shortage of officers of this type, hence the department cannot itself solve this problem. Nevertheless, we believe that in the broader area of administrative recruitment it has scope to alleviate the difficulties which the administrative/professional split tends to generate, by ensuring that there are enough high-level administrative positions to make educational administration a career with attractive prospects, that there is a well-constructed career ladder leading to those positions, and that there are enough well-qualified recruits on the lower rungs of that ladder.

7.16 The proposal to attach administration officers to the professional directorates would materially strengthen the department's career ladder. Indeed, we look forward to the day when senior administrative officers will be recognised to be so sensitive to "professional" implications, in consequence of their immersion in

the work of the directorates, that their career ladder will extend to the top management positions at present confined to professional officers. Meantime, the emphasis must be placed on improved recruitment, retention, and training. *We suggest that the department undertake (as others have done) a vigorous programme of graduate recruitment, leading to a planned rotation through a variety of line-sections of the department with opportunities also for some investigating and advisory work.* Further promotion must inevitably depend on individual aptitudes and abilities, but it should be made clear that those who succeed will be given opportunities for further training at a high level in educational or public administration. By these means much could be done, we believe, to make a career on the administrative side of the department more attractive, hence to develop a strong, efficient, and enthusiastic administrative staff.

7.17 The third problem tends to occur on the professional side of the administrative/professional boundary. Professional officers normally leave teaching to take positions in the inspectorate; they are selected largely on the basis of their professional skill as teachers, and few have any formal training in administration. Account is no doubt taken of administrative ability when they are appointed to head office positions, but they are not normally given any substantial training in administration despite the increased administrative content of their work. (In two cases only, such officers have been released to take the full-time post-graduate course for the Diploma of Public Administration.) Two consequences tend to follow. On the one hand, an increased burden of supervision falls on senior professional officers until the new appointees have become habituated to the techniques of public administration. On the other, there is often a failure to delegate sufficiently (a problem which is aggravated whenever there is an inadequacy of administrative or clerical support.)

7.18 There is indeed evidence that a number of professional officers are seriously overcommitted on matters some of which are below their level of responsibility. Many of them work excessively long hours, and forgo leave; but even so, there is a risk that their professional responsibilities, and especially their capacity to plan ahead, will suffer because of the strain under which they are working. There is no single simple remedy for this situation. It should in part be met by improved training for such officers, to prepare them better for administrative work and to encourage more effective delegation. It would also be assisted by the better intermeshing of the professional and administrative sides to which we have already referred, so that professional officers do not undertake tasks which are properly those of their administrative colleagues. The appointment of

administration officers should help in this regard, and also in inducting newly appointed professional officers into the ways of the Civil Service. And at some points, more clerical support is needed for senior officers.

7.19 In general, *we believe that solutions should be sought by better allocation of work rather than by appointing additional senior professional officers to carry it out.* In one instance, however, this is not so. At the highest levels of the department, the problems of co-ordinating the activities of the directorates and divisions through which the State's vastly expanded educational enterprise is run still fall, as they fell 20 years ago, on three officers: the Director-General and the two Assistant Directors-General. *To give them time for forward thinking in addition to their day-to-day work of co-ordination within the department and consultation with the numerous educational organisations outside it, we recommend (as did the Currie Commission more than a decade ago) the appointment of a further Assistant Director-General. Among his responsibilities should, in our view, be the supervision of the present proposals for the department's reorganisation, and a continuing oversight in the department's organisation in the light of changing circumstances. (This should not be taken to preclude the possibility of a comprehensive investigation, from time to time, by management consultants.)*

Regional Structure

7.20 Regional offices of the department exist at Auckland (for the northern region), Christchurch (for the southern region), and Wellington (for the central region). Each is headed by a regional superintendent who is a professional officer, and the secondary inspectorate tends to work out of the regional office, but for the most part regional offices are staffed by administrative officers in sections dealing with teachers, buildings, accounts, stores, and services.

7.21 The main purpose of the regional office is to apply within its area the policies which have been centrally determined. In primary education this means, for the most part, checking that the decisions of the education boards within the region conform with the prescribed rules and standards, and approving on behalf of the department (to the extent that it has delegated its powers to the regions) such education board proposals as require its approval. In secondary education the region has a much more active role, similar indeed to that of education boards in primary education, for example in deciding where new schools or extra buildings will be needed, in determining priorities among maintenance needs, in purchasing and supplying stores and equipment, and in administering the selection of students for secondary teachers colleges; it also

approves on behalf of the department certain proposals of secondary boards of governors, such as appointments to certain senior teaching positions. In addition, it is in charge of buildings and maintenance for kindergartens, teachers colleges, and technical institutes, and supplies stores and equipment for technical institutes and universities.

7.22 Besides heading the office which performs these administrative tasks, the regional superintendent himself has two responsibilities. He interprets departmental policy within the region, and is a local source of information about it, acting in effect as the department's ambassador; and like an ambassador, he should have his finger on the pulse of local feeling. He may also influence policy, by reporting in writing or in person to head office about the regional effects of present policies and the likely effects of projected measures. The regional superintendents are directly responsible to the Director-General, and they meet collectively with him fairly frequently.

7.23 Regional offices are clearly useful transmission belts in the department's machinery. Their future scope will, however, depend on what action is taken on recommendations and suggestions contained elsewhere in this report. We would hope that their checking role would be somewhat reduced, in consequence of the department's relinquishing, wherever practicable, its existing power to confirm the decisions of local controlling authorities; where checks are still needed, to ensure that those authorities are complying with departmental guidelines (relating, for example, to school transport routes), they should as far as possible be based on a post-audit of decisions taken, rather than on a requirement that local proposals be confirmed in advance by the regional office.

7.24 However, the main unknown quantity in the future responsibilities of the regional office lies in the field of secondary education. In chapter 3 we recommended that the work of its property supervisors, in ascertaining the maintenance needs of secondary schools, should be handled by the property supervisors who work out of the education board offices. We also there discuss other possibilities which, if adopted, would effect a significant reduction in the work of the regional office, among them the transfer to district representatives of secondary boards of governors of responsibility for deciding on relative priorites in maintenance expenditure (aided by the property supervisors' reports) and in new construction, including the siting of new schools. Supply of stores and equipment for secondary as well as for primary schools, and the administration of conditions of service for secondary as well as primary teachers, could also be dealt with by the district office.

If these changes occurred, the regional office would still be needed, but its job would become for the most part one of approving on behalf of the department (within the limits of its delegated powers) building proposals, on which we have detailed recommendations to make in a later section of this chapter, also bulk purchasing of stores, disbursing such grants as the department may choose to leave to its discretion, and ensuring that district and local institutions conform to the regulations and departmental guidelines in such fields as staffing and school transport.

7.25 *Recognising that each additional regional office is likely to result in some extra costs, we are unwilling in this situation of uncertainty to make any firm recommendation about an increase in their number. If there is a substantial transfer of functions from regional to district offices, it would seem wise to continue with only three regions. If on the other hand regions retain all or most of their present functions, we believe that there is a case for increasing their number to five or even six, (Hamilton, Palmerston North, and Dunedin are possible extra locations), so as to bring the department into closer contact with those districts which are at present somewhat remote.*

7.26 There remains to discuss the position of regional superintendent. It is suggested in some quarters that his position is anomalous, as virtually the only professional one in a predominantly administrative office. Bearing in mind his "ambassadorial" functions, and his policy link with the Director-General, we do not find it so. His is a task which calls for a professional's sensitivities, hence it should not routinely be assigned to an administrator, though (as we have already remarked) we believe that some experienced educational administrators acquire such sensitivities and would make suitable appointees.

7.27 The question in our minds is what links should exist between the regional superintendent and the inspectorate. The inspectorate (to be discussed in the next section) is the main professional link between head office and the schools throughout the country, and its lines of communication tend to run direct to head office rather than through the region. This seems to us proper; to interpose the regional superintendent between the expert in the field and his head office counterpart would be undersirable. Moreover, the primary inspectorate is generally based on the district and not the regional office, and we are proposing that the secondary inspectors be similarly based so that a unified inspectorate may be developed. The regional superintendent would then be separated still further from their professional concerns.

7.28 However, he must retain some links with the inspectorate if he is to keep his finger on the pulse of local feeling within the region, and to serve as the department's trouble-shooter when the decision of an education board or a board of governors seems likely to precipitate a crisis warranting the Minister's attention. For this purpose we envisage his holding periodic meetings with the senior inspector (or inspectors, in a multi-district region), which might deal not only with current problems in public relations, but also with such matters as the organisation of in-service training for teachers within the region, borrowings by a district of a specialist inspector based on another district, and the co-ordinated interpretation within the region of policies relating, for instance, to increased staffing within certain types of school.

The Inspectorate

7.29 In our chapter on the school system we recommended the unification of the primary and secondary inspectorates as an essential step towards greater continuity in the educational process. Here we must examine in more detail the purposes and organisation of this vital institution. Our present discussion does not cover the work of the technical inspectorate, which we have dealt with in a previous chapter when considering technical institutes.

7.30 The role of school inspectors has been transformed since the days of Matthew Arnold, H.M.I., and the system in England of "payment by results". What began in New Zealand as a formal inspection of children, and later became a mode of assessing teachers, is now mainly a professional advisory service. "A basic task of H.M. Inspectorate", reported a Select Committee of the House of Commons recently, "is to help teachers to teach better"; and we have been told by the department that in this country "the central function of the inspector of schools is that of guiding teachers to serve the children in the schools".

7.31 We would place the emphasis on "schools" rather than on "teachers" or "children". Certainly, the inspector is concerned with the competence of individual teachers, and the educational impact on children of their classroom programmes; but this is only a part, albeit important, of the whole complex of activities which constitutes the school, and which it is his task to evaluate and (by suggestion) to improve—a complex which includes the tone and ethos of its pupils, morale and inter-relationships among its staff, the leadership of its principal, the suitability of its plant and equipment, and the support it receives from its board

or committee, the parents, and the local community. His role should therefore become less and less that of a pedagogic technologist, and more and more that of a socio-educational catalyst, enabling each school to benefit from the experience of others and from innovative professional leadership in head office and in the district team of inspectors. In addition to his own classroom skills (for he will have been a successful teacher), the inspector brings to this task an increasing capacity to make informed judgments about the system, from visiting schools, talking with teachers, principals, administrators, members of governing bodies, and with his own colleagues, from his involvement in meetings, seminars, and in-service courses for teachers, and from his own reading and thinking. We see him, in short, as a "resource person".

7.32 Within this broad range of tasks he must continue to have a residual responsibility for the assessment of individual teachers. *We welcome the trend towards reducing the occasions for personal inspection of this kind, but recognise that at two points in a teacher's career it is desirable: at the end of his probationary period, and when he first seeks promotion to a position of responsibility over other teachers.* In the latter case, the alternative to a formal assessment by which employing authorities can be guided would inevitably be an informal system of grapevine communication, which is less likely to be impartial. *Nevertheless, we see personal assessment as decidedly the lesser part of an inspector's duties, and believe that it should be confined to these two points in a teacher's career.*

7.33 We have spoken of the role of an inspector as if he operated solo. On some occasions, as for instance in assessing individual teachers, this will be the case; but we envisage much of the work of a unified inspectorate being performed by teams, consisting of an appropriate blend of generalists and specialists. Each district will still need within its unified inspectorate individuals who differ widely one from another in their experience of the various sectors of the school system and in their subject fields. Some will doubtless spend more of their time as inspectors in primary schools, others in secondary schools; but we look towards a more deliberate planning of activity common to both. A unified inspectorate, operating through teams, is a logical extension of the functional co-ordination which is already bringing together the primary and secondary inspectorates in such fields as curriculum development, special education, Maori education, and teacher training.

7.34 To organise these teams, and to co-ordinate the work of the inspectorate as a whole, a senior inspector will be needed within each district. Through him, professional advice will be tendered to the education board, and to the district organisation for secondary

schools wherever one exists. It will also be his task—and we do not imagine it to be an easy one—to knit together the district inspectors who have hitherto been in two separate organisations into a single group with a common purpose and a strong sense of *esprit de corps.*

7.35 *At the national level, too, continuing efforts will be needed to give a sense of direction, and a high morale, to the inspectorate as a whole. This will be the responsibility of whoever heads the directorate of schools after the reorganisation of head office, previously described. We could wish that this position might be given the title chief inspector of schools, since that most clearly describes the nature of the job, as we see it.* In addition to inculcating a sense of unity and purpose within the inspectorate, it would be the chief inspector's task to ensure that there is always available for the Minister and the Director-General an accumulated body of information, comment, and constructive proposals, based on contributions from the inspectorate throughout the country.

7.36 We feel that the element of academic specialisation among the inspectorate, while undoubtedly important, can be overemphasised. Clearly, in such fields as science, mathematics, and language teaching, there must be members of the inspectorial team who can command the respect of the teachers whom they advise. Moreover, the inspectorate must still be able to draw on the services of advisers in such fields as music, art, physical education, homecraft, and infant method. Occasionally, in smaller districts, it may be necessary briefly to borrow a specialist from another district. But conceding all this, we would nevertheless maintain that it is primarily the responsibility of the principal, the head of department, and the individual teacher to ensure that the school's staff are up to date in their subjects and teaching methods. The inspectors will doubtless verify whether this is so, but they have other and wider responsibilities in addition, based on their experience and powers of judgment rather than on subject-matter specialisation.

7.37 We recognise the danger that an inspectorate may become inbred, in that it is inspectors who in large part determine which teachers shall in turn become inspectors. Consciousness of this danger, on the part of those responsible for selection and training of inspectors, can help materially to reduce it. The main defence, however, is to ensure that the inspectorate (including those of its members in the proposed directorate of schools) are not regarded as the sole source of innovation, but that the system as a whole is open to new ideas, for instance from teachers, teachers college lecturers, university staff, and from the professional, commercial, and industrial communities. Openness to representations from outside bodies is indeed a feature of the New Zealand system. If the department sometimes seems slow to respond to a clarion call from outside, it is not because

it does not hear, but because it is bombarded by so many other incompatible outside demands.

7.38 We conclude this section by listing briefly some additional points:

(a) Every inspector on appointment should undergo a considerable period of training including apprenticeship with his colleagues, though not in the district in which he is to serve. Preselection exercises for possible candidates for the inspectorate might also be considered.

(b) Every inspector should include numerous "open" periods as well as routine engagements in his programme.

(c) A close relationship is needed between the research and planning unit and the field inspectorate. Planners should be kept in the closest touch with reality from the field as well as with policy from the centre.

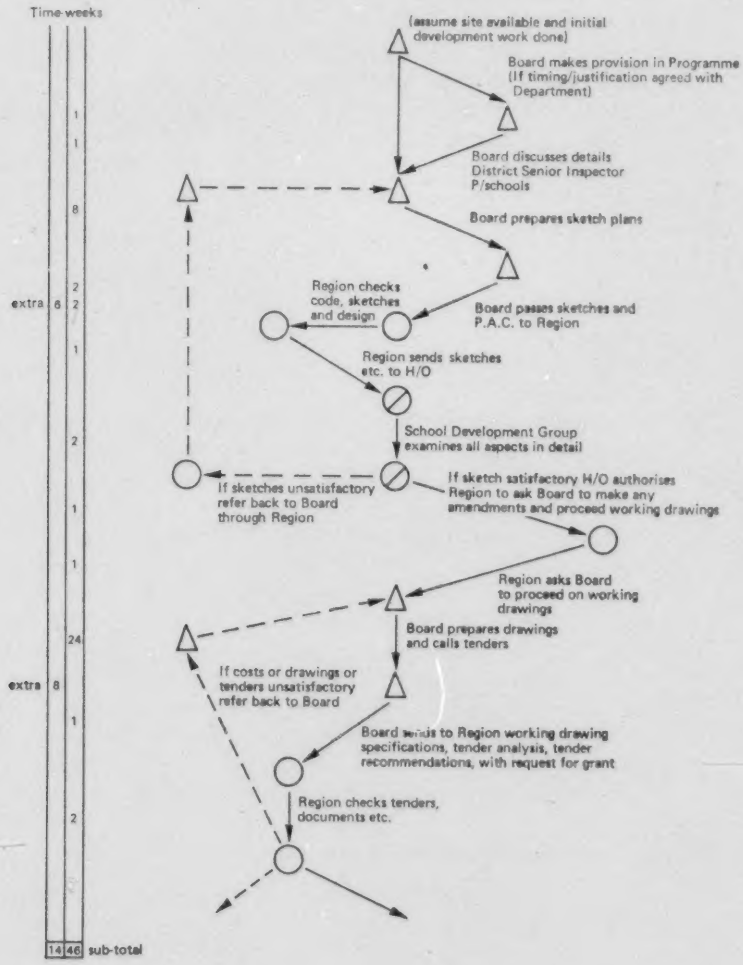
(d) At present a field inspectorate of 162 is serviced by 5 clerks, 8 office assistants, 7 shorthand typists, 6 typists, and 5 temporary part-time typists. We trust that an inspectorate unified at district level will be able to draw adequately on administrative and clerical support from the district office. Without this, much of its work must prove both frustrating and wasteful.

(e) The Currie Commission noted difficulties in recruiting suitable inspectors (especially secondary inspectors) at the salary levels then obtaining. The same is true today, owing to the failure to increase inspectors' salaries as rapidly as those of other professional groups. In the 1970 revaluation of the teaching services, increases of 12 percent were granted to primary teachers, and of between 16 and 17 percent to secondary teachers. Increases have also been applied to the staffs of teachers colleges, technical institutes, and kindergartens. Despite lengthy negotiations, no parallel increases have yet been granted to the inspectorate, and a case finally scheduled for review is currently delayed by the stabilisation provisions. This is an anomalous and regrettable situation, which should be rectified at the earliest proper opportunity.

Building Programming and Approvals

7.39 This was unquestionably the area of educational administration which generated more complaints in the submissions made to us than any other, hence we closely examined the existing procedures. They are admittedly complex, and the various checks and restraints are understandably annoying to the controlling authorities whose works they delay. Our first task was to distinguish

This flow-chart illustrates the typical stages in processing a proposal to build a primary school classroom block, not expensive enough to need Cabinet Works Committee approval at each stage, but not covered by a prototype plan.
The procedures for site acquisition, and for secondary buildings, are even more complicated.


Time-weeks
1
1
8
extra 6 2
2
1
2
1
1
24
extra 8
1
2
14 46 sub-total
(assume site available and initial development work done)
Board makes provision in Programme (If timing/justification agreed with Department)
Board discusses details District Senior Inspector P/schools
Board prepares sketch plans
Region checks code, sketches and design
Board passes sketches and P.A.C. to Region
Region sends sketches etc. to H/O
School Development Group examines all aspects in detail
If sketches unsatisfactory refer back to Board through Region
If sketch satisfactory H/O authorises Region to ask Board to make any amendments and proceed working drawings
Region asks Board to proceed on working drawings
Board prepares drawings and calls tenders
If costs or drawings or tenders unsatisfactory refer back to Board
Board sends to Region working drawing specifications, tender analysis, tender recommendations, with request for grant
Region checks tenders, documents etc.

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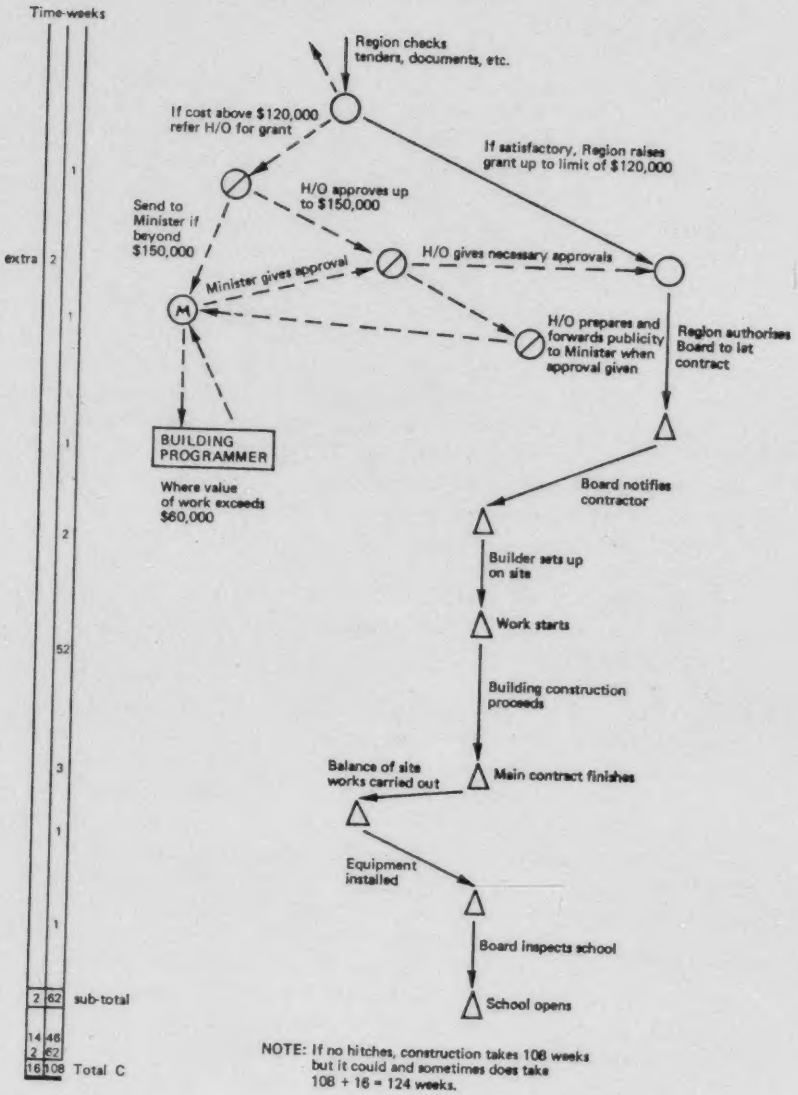


NOTE: If no hitches, construction takes 108 weeks but it could and sometimes does take 108 + 16 = 124 weeks.

these procedural delays from the deferment of some capital works (also annoying to controlling authorities) because the funds granted are insufficient to cover them; the latter is a policy matter into which, save in two respects to be mentioned, we cannot inquire. We have then looked into the control procedures to see whether delays might be reduced.

7.40 Let us dispose first of the complaint that the funds available for education buildings are inadequate. On the face of it, the simple answer is that it is the Government's responsibility to balance the various needs when drawing up its annual works programme, and that spokesmen for a single sector (such as education) are in no position to make impartial judgments. This is true, but not quite the whole truth, for two reasons. First, governments sometimes seem to speak with two voices. New policies are from time to time announced which imply augmented spending on school buildings (as, for instance, would improved building codes, improved staffing ratios, or more school libraries), but there is no corresponding increase in subsequent works programmes. Second, government decisions are sometimes more volatile than a works programme carefully tailored to needs would be. We are told that the initial works programme allocation for school buildings is customarily increased in consequence of subsequent representations, and that substantial increases could occur as late as the supplementary estimates, halfway through the financial year. To the extent that a government finds such modifications desirable, some doubt most inevitably be cast on the judgments embodied in its initial version of the works programme.

7.41 It should not be supposed that there are obvious solutions to these problems; indeed, they may not be soluble at all. If governments were deterred from announcing policies whenever the time which it will take to achieve them cannot be precisely specified in advance, they might never find it possible to adopt an improved building code for schools; and, from the viewpoint of the controlling authorities, that remedy would surely be worse than the existing complaint. Again, an annual works programme which could never be modified in any particular would surely be excessively inflexible. All that can reasonably be asked is, on the one hand, that the Government and its works programmers make every effort when framing the annual works programme to allow realistically for policies already adopted and to minimise the occasions for subsequent modification and, on the other, that controlling authorities recognise that economic circumstances must materially affect the rate of progress towards agreed objectives.

7.42 This brings us to the heart of the problem of works programming. It is typically an exercise not in addition but in division; that is to say, it is not a matter of adding together the plans of the several operating agencies in the governmental sector, but of deciding (in the light of the manpower and materials likely to be available to that sector) how much capital construction the Government can undertake within the year, and of sharing that total among the several operating agencies in the light of their relative needs. This means that, shortly before the beginning of the financial year, all operating agencies have to submit their proposals, so that relative need can be determined and allocations fixed. The exercise is indeed a good deal more complicated than this brief description suggests, partly because current proposals must be seen as part of longer-term programmes (a rolling 5-year programme period is typically used), partly because the selection of projects to be begun this year will affect next year's programming, and partly because an agency may be given approval for more works than its grant will cover, to allow it some flexibility in deploying resources in the light of changing circumstances. Thus if, for instance, the Wellington Education Board is unable, because excessive demand develops during the year on the Wellington building industry, to complete all the works for which funds have been allocated, the department might arrange to transfer the surplus to the Hawke's Bay Education Board to be spent on approved works not otherwise covered by grants. By this means the department customarily ensures that the funds annually allocated for school byildings are never underspent.

7.43 The present programming system has evolved in response to the needs of Government, and there can be no question of abandoning it. Can it be improved? To us its main defect (apart from the features previously criticised) is that it encourages unrealistic expectations on the part of education boards, which must subsequently be disappointed. Each board initially prepares its proposals in the light of what it would like to do, rather than of what it is likely to do. It is not well situated to moderate its ambitions in the light of national economic circumstances or of the limited capacity of the building industry within its district; it may not even recognise sufficiently the limited capacity of its own architectural and draughting staff to cope with all the new projects contemplated. At the next phase of the process the department will be advised of the sum which is likely to be available for school building, and after deducting a provisional amount for secondary schools, will inform each board of its tentative allocation. But by then, the board has begun to feel a sense of commitment to the proposals which it has already formulated; each year the subsequent process of whittling them down, of striking out worth-while items because

they do not warrant a sufficient priority, must arouse among board members feelings of disappointment and frustration. (It should be noted that, while boards often complain that the total amount for buildings is insufficient, they rarely if ever query the department's allocation of that amount among them.)

7.44 The remedy, we suggest, is to focus the board's attention from the outset on relative priorities by indicating the tentative allocation within which it is advised to plan. Indeed, *it would improve forward planning if the Government, when approving the works programme for the ensuing year, announced tentative figures for school building works for the following 2 years, and the department indicated how those sums might be allocated among the boards.* Such figures would necessarily be merely a provisional guide for purposes of planning, and boards would need to receive (preferably no later than December of each year) an updated indication of its prospective allocation for the forthcoming financial year.

7.45 Once projects are on the annual works programme, the question arises of how much political control is needed over them in the interests of national economic regulation (as distinct from technical control in the interests of ensuring that they meet prescribed standards). We recognise that circumstances will arise from time to time when the Government will need to slow down its rate of capital construction during the financial year. We question, however, whether for these occasional purposes it needs to maintain on a continuous basis the detailed controls over large capital projects currently exercised through the Cabinet Works Committee. Such projects customarily pass through the machinery several times for example at the stages of programme approvals, sketch plans, working drawings, and calling tenders. We suggest that the Government's management of the economy would be sufficiently safeguarded if in normal times it extensively delegated authority to approve programmed works, reserving to itself the right temporarily to rescind such delegations whenever circumstances warranted. Increased delegation of certain powers to education boards would, moreover, conform with current policies of decentralisation.

7.46 Accordingly, *we recommend that in normal circumstances, once the Cabinet Works Committee has approved an education building project on an assessed cost basis, the necessary approvals for subsequent stages be given by the Minister of Education, who will ensure that such projects meet prescribed standards; and that education boards be authorised to accept tenders, without further reference to the department, for capital works that are on an approved programme and that are within accepted planning criteria, up to a cost level of $100,000.*

7.47 There is also a case, we believe, for reviewing the limit (until recently $75,000 and now $120,000) of the delegated financial authority of the regional superintendents. At one time this equalled the authority of the Director-General, but that has risen more rapidly, and is now $150,000. *We recommend that regional superintendents also be authorised to approve capital works individually listed on approved programmes to a value of $150,000, and that their authority to approve works not so listed be aligned with the Director-General's powers.*

7.48 *At whatever level the delegated financial authority of regional superintendents is fixed, the same figure should be set for the district office of the Ministry of Works.* Until very recently, education works costing more than $20,000 which could be approved by a regional superintendent have had to be referred to the head office of the Ministry of Works for clearance of plans and processing of tenders. We understand that this anomaly is now being rectified, but care should be taken that it does not re-emerge if the financial authority of regional superintendents is increased.

7.49 A topic closely related to buildings, and which has given rise to concern among education authorities and the public, is land purchase. Protracted delays have frequently occurred in the purchase of land for school sites, successive governments have been reluctant to use their powers of compulsory acquisition, and consequently highly suitable sites have been lost and schools located on much inferior ones. As far as possible, this problem should be met by acquiring sites well in advance. Purchase up to 10 years ahead is permissible, and this is not only financially advantageous but permits better planning, since the total public educational needs of the area can then be considered (including pre-school as well as primary, intermediate, secondary, and such other categories as may emerge). In some cases a single site will cater for a variety of needs. *To expedite and encourage such purchasing in advance, the possibility should be explored of centralising land acquisition so that the department, on behalf of the education boards, would purchase sites using a consolidated land purchase grant; the policy responsibility for choosing among primary and intermediate sites should, however, remain with the boards, to whom such sites would in due course be transferred.*

7.50 In some cases, however, purchase well in advance of need is not possible, especially in expanding suburban areas where subdivisional schemes progress very rapidly. *In such circumstances, we believe, the Government should be prepared to use its powers of compulsory purchase, provided that the need for acquisition is urgent,* and that the urgency can be shown not to be a consequence of defective forward planning by the relevant education authority.

7.51 Town planning procedures are alleged to be a further source of delay in the acquisition of school sites. We suggest that the problem be considered during the current review of the Town and Country Planning Act.

Salary-fixing and Grading Procedures

7.52 For two reasons we have decided not to deal in this report with the procedures by which remuneration and conditions of service are determined in the education system. First, for most of those employed in that system the procedures were reviewed fairly recently (by a Royal Commission in 1968), and from the paucity of submissions to us on these matters we must assume that the resulting changes have proved generally satisfactory. Second, while we did receive some submissions proposing changes in the jurisdiction, composition, and procedures of the Education Boards Employment Review Committee, the issues raised were not such as could in our view appropriately be debated in the local study groups and regional seminars which are to constitute the 1974 Educational Development Conference, for which this report has been written. In fairness to those who made the submissions, since they fall within our terms of reference, we have accordingly decided to prepare a separate brief report for the Minister's consideration.

Departmental Research and Planning

7.53 In this section we deal with a small but important part of the department's future organisation, namely how its research and planning unit can and should intermesh with its line officers in formulating and evaluating policy proposals.

7.54 In 1970 the research and statistics sections of the department were combined to form the research and planning unit. This now contains 18 officers, 8 of them graduates, and the department plans to increase its establishment to 21 in 1974. Up to this stage the unit has been engaged primarily in preparing statistical material, including projections of enrolments and of teacher demand and supply, in the evaluation of certain vocational training schemes, and in servicing the Advisory Council on Educational Planning. Its output is acknowledged to be impressive, in quantity and in quality, and it is currently developing (in association with other sections of the department) information services and systems on which planning can be more firmly based. The area of concern is not over what it has done, or is doing, but over what it should in future be expected to do.

7.55 Certainly, planning and policy-formation should not be concentrated in the unit, leaving the department's professional directorates and administrative divisions as mere instruments for

carrying out policies devised elsewhere. On the other hand, the educational planner can and should contribute more than a service, merely providing the data on which others can plan; by the use of his own specialised techniques he can appraise alternative policies, can transform decisions, once made, into a co-ordinated series of operational programmes, and can evaluate on-going programmes to see what adjustments they need.

7.56 The problem is thus to devise a form of organisation in which both the senior line officer and the expert planner can fruitfully interact in formulating and reappraising policies. To do so is not simply a matter of choosing an appropriate organisation chart, for two reasons. One is that the research and planning unit is still a young and evolving entity, hence it must grow into its future role; organisation charts, however, are static, not dynamic. The other reason is that organisation charts display structure, not processes. It is at first sight disconcerting that the proposed head office reorganisation would transfer the unit from under the wing of the Director-General, where it can be presumed to have equal access to all sections of the department, and place it within the directorate of development, where that presumption cannot be inferred from the structure. (We need hardly add that ready access to all sections is an obvious requirement of planning.) However, we have been assured by the department that "horizontal communication" between the various directorates and divisions is a fundamental feature of the proposed reorganisation, and that it regards the unit's ability to communicate freely and directly across organisational boundaries as essential to its research and planning functions. We welcome this assurance, since what counts is not structure on paper, but processes in action.

7.57 Accordingly, we do not think it expedient to suggest any modification of the location of the unit in the proposals for head office reorganisation. For the time being, the unit can usefully build up its experience and develop closer association with other sections by constructing information systems. However, we would expect its role to expand, once the new head office organisation has been run in. We envisage the growth of a formal planning structure to strengthen the present somewhat pragmatic approach, co-ordinated by a planning group chaired by the Director-General or an Assistant Director-General and consisting of senior representatives of each directorate and division, which would set up as necessary planning teams to formulate specific new developments or policies. In this way, the various directorates and divisions would continue to participate fully in the policy-forming process.

7.58 The planning group, and its various planning teams, would be serviced by the research and planning unit, on whose special skills in evaluation and programming they could thus draw. The unit would doubtless supply some of the needed data, though so would other sections, such as those dealing with buildings and finance. Its special contributions, however, should be to identify and appraise the available policy options (through, for instance, analyses of opportunity costs, and rate of return analyses on projected developments); to help convert the eventual decisions into operational programmes (through, for instance, the application of systems theory, and through critical path analyses); and to develop mathematical models embodying the relationships among the quantified variables within the educational system, so that the effects on that system of hypothetical changes can be simulated.

7.59 From this brief account it will be clear that we visualise planning as a team activity, involving whichever sections of the department are involved in a given policy area, but also making full use of such techniques as actuarial mathematics, demographic projection, and econometric analysis to assist them to make optimal choices among alternatives.

7.60 If the situation develops in this fashion, it may ultimately prove desirable to align the organisational structure to the operating processes by making the unit directly responsible to whichever senior officer chairs the planning group. However, until the suggested processes have been tried and thoroughly tested, such a move would be premature.

7.61 Finally, *we recommend that officers from the unit should have opportunities to proceed overseas for periods of not less than 3 months to broaden their experience, extend their skills, and familiarise themselves with techniques of planning in other systems.* We have in mind such possibilities as attendance at senior courses at the International Institute for Educational Planning and attachment to the appropriate division of the Organisation for Economic Co-operation and Development.

Extra-departmental Planning and Advisory Bodies

7.62 We are well aware of the extensive patterns of consultation with outside interests which are a feature of the department's work and welcome them, despite the consequent demands on the time of its most senior officers. The more decentralised the education

system becomes, and the more autonomous the various units within it, the more important it is that these officers be in a position to improve co-ordination and maintain contact with community interests in this way.

7.63 Nevertheless, we cannot accept as a corollary the maxim, the more committees the better. Each, in our view, needs to be justified, and we see risks in a multiplicity of permanent advisory committees, each tending to push its own barrow of policies.

7.64 Certain permanent "liaison" committees are necessary, to improve co-ordination among relatively autonomous units within the system. Among those mentioned in our previous discussion are the National Council on Pre-school Education; the "Relationships" committee embracing the universities, technical institutes, and prospectively teachers colleges; and the National Council of Adult Education, though its composition (we suggested) might need reviewing. There are, of course, others, but we see no need to provide an exhaustive list. An extra one might be needed to co-ordinate the activities of the New Zealand Council for Educational Research, the UGC Research Grants Committee, and the department in distributing funds for educational research, if the Government decided to make more money available for that purpose.

7.65 Certain "standing" committees also perform a very valuable function, in providing a forum for dialogue between the department and representatives of a given type of institution. The standing committees on administration for primary, secondary, and technical education, and for teachers colleges, are the most notable examples, though we have suggested that the last of these may need to be more formally constituted than it has hitherto been.

7.66 Apart from liaison and standing committees of these types, there exist certain permanent advisory committees, and others are proposed. It is these, we believe, which call for the closest scrutiny. One which has produced and is still producing useful policy recommendations is the National Advisory Committee on Maori Education, and we recommend its continuance. The Standing Committee on Teacher Training (under the aegis of the Advisory Council on Educational Planning) has also produced valuable studies and recommendations, some of which we have referred to in previous chapters. In this case, however, we question the need for a continuing committee; what will be needed for some time after the Educational Development Conference is no

longer the stimulus of outside ideas and public discussion, but rather an opportunity within the teachers college system to appraise the many suggestions which have already been made, and to give administrative shape to those which are acceptable.

7.67 We suspect, indeed, that the most useful advisory committees (as distinct from the liaison committees and standing committees previously described) are likely to be occasional rather than permanent. Even the Committee on Maori Education may in time lose its usefulness. *What is needed, we suggest, is a single continuing body which can keep an eye on the educational system as a whole, and direct public attention to any troublesome aspect of it by setting up an ad hoc study group or advisory committee of a temporary nature to undertake an investigation and prepare a report for publication.*

7.68 For this purpose a suitable body already exists: the Advisory Council on Educational Planning (though we suggest that it could more appropriately be called the Advisory Council on Educational Development). It has already commissioned and published reports of the type we have in mind, through its working parties on *University/Technical Institute Relationships* and on *Technical and Industrial Academic Awards*, and through its committee on teacher training. It might well have tackled similarly such topics as continuing education (investigated instead by the National Commission for UNESCO), drug education, and sex education (investigated by the department). There are obvious advantages in having an independent body commission reports of this kind, so that the Minister and the department are free to assess their recommendations in the light of the resulting public discussion; and there are also advantages, we believe, in allowing a single independent body, well informed about the educational system as a whole, to select the topics for inquiry in the light of current needs and concerns, rather than to establish permanent advisory committees in such fields as curriculum reform or teacher training.

7.69 The Advisory Council on Educational Planning happens to be a part of the NDC structure, the future of which is as yet uncertain. However, *we see no reason why the council should not exist independently. We recommend that its members be selected and appointed by the Minister of Education, for a 3-year term, one-third retiring each year, and that they be chosen for their potential contribution as individuals, not as representatives of a particular organisation or interest.* It would, of course, be for the council to determine how often it met, but in our view two or three meetings each year might be sufficient. It should clearly be independent of the department in making decisions, but this need not and should not prevent liaison with

it; for that purpose the Director-General or his representative should be an associate member of the council, and it should continue to be serviced by departmental staff. It must, however, be provided with a grant sufficient to enable it to commission investigations and to publish the resulting reports. It is inevitable, we believe, that a body thus constituted and funded could be destroyed or emasculated by the Minister and the department if they were of a mind to do so; but we are confident that both the Minister and the department will recognise the advantages of making it strong and independent, in the interests of directing public attention to the continuing problems of educational development.

Chapter 8 RECOMMENDATIONS

In the text of the previous chapters, our conclusions have been italicised. Such of those conclusions as constitute recommendations, or proposals for immediate further investigations, are repeated in the present chapter.

8.1 Pre-school education should be expanded through a strengthened partnership between the State and the relevant voluntary organisations (para. 2.22).

8.2 Unless it is clear that there are enough children in the locality to warrant two different pre-school centres, the organisation currently functioning should receive State support. Where two pre-school centres are warranted parents should have a choice (para. 2.23).

8.3 The department through its pre-school advisory service and through its role in the national council and in district committeess should foster mutual respect between the pre-school movements and encourage them to learn from each other (para. 2.25).

8.4 Opportunities for further training should be provided for pre-school teachers, and are of greater priority than extending the pre-entry training of kindergarten teachers (para. 2.27).

8.5 A fuller information service for the guidance of parents and voluntary workers should be developed, explaining the purposes of pre-school education and the varied ways in which it is provided (para. 2.28).

8.6 No further major restructuring of the pre-school system should be undertaken at present (para. 2.33).

8.7 Close liaison should be encouraged between primary/intermediate and secondary staffs, both nationally and at a local level (para. 3.9).

8.8 Primary and intermediate school committees and secondary boards of governors should be retained, with certain modifications. Where the parents so wish each secondary school should have its own board (para. 3.17).

8.9 Statutory authority to issue directions to education boards, boards of governors, and school committees should not be conferred on the Minister of Education (para. 3.18).

8.10 Boards of governors should retain their powers to appoint staff. Each board of governors should establish an appointments committee which should consider the applications for every permanent teaching appointment and in the case of senior positions make its recommendations to the full board. The district senior inspector should have the right to attend any meeting of the committee—but not to vote (para. 3.21).

8.11 Each school committee should more closely participate in the appointment of senior staff and in the case of the appointment of principal should, through its chairman, have a voice wherever possible on the board's appointment committee (para. 3.22).

8.12 Primary and intermediate school principals should, through closer consultation, be given a greater opportunity to influence the selection of their staff (para. 3.22).

8.13 Education boards, in conjunction with district school committee associations, should explore ways of increasing the responsibilities of school committees (para. 3.24).

8.14 An election by householders of school committee members should be held every year, in conjunction with the annual general meeting of the PTA (where one exists), only half of the householder seats being filled at each such election (para. 3.28). The PTA should also have the right to appoint annually an additional member of the school committee and (where the householders' meeting so decides) to appoint more than one, but never more than one less than the number of school committee members elected by the householders (para. 3.31).

8.15 In any primary or intermediate school with more than 100 pupils, the teaching staff should be entitled to elect each year one of their number to be a non-voting member of the school committee (para. 3.30).

8.16 Boards of governors should be predominantly composed of parents' representatives (para. 3.33). The full-time teaching staff should be entitled to elect one of their number to be a non-voting member of the board. The district education board should be entitled to appoint a representative to each board of governors in its area but no member of the education board should sit on more than one board of governors (para. 3.36).

8.17 Except where they are replaced by district councils (paras. 3.69–3.74), education boards should continue to be elected by school committees, with the addition of some nominated or co-opted members (paras. 3.42–3.45 and 3.76).

8.18 Except where they are replaced by district councils (paras. 3.69–3.74), education boards should retain their present powers and functions (para. 3.47) and in addition provide for such other employing authorities as pre-school organisations, secondary schools, and registered private schools, a range of services (para. 3.47) which in the case of secondary schools should include the payment of accounts and the regular preparation of financial statements and balance sheets (para. 3.65) and, where practicable and economic, a secretarial service for boards of governors (para. 3.66), except where a secondary schools council is already efficiently and economically performing these tasks.

8.19 Unless a district council is locally preferred (paras. 3.69–3.74), a separate Northland education board should be created at an early date (para. 3.50).

8.20 Consideration should be given to establishing a combined Nelson-Marlborough district (para. 3.53).

8.21 The Education Boards Association should, whenever necessary, investigate complaints concerning ward boundaries and suggest improvements (para. 3.54).

8.22 The principal of a secondary school should not serve as secretary to his board of governors (para. 3.66).

8.23 The department should merge its primary and secondary inspectorates into one unified inspectorate (para. 3.81, also paras. 7.29–7.38).

8.24 The upper school (i.e., forms 6 and 7) should be given a greater distinctiveness within existing secondary schools:

(a) by developing a wider range of post School Certificate programmes to cater more fully for the needs both of prospective university entrants and of others;

(b) by increased use in the upper school of teaching methods suited to older students;

(c) by developing patterns of upper school organisation, of discipline, and of facilities closer to those of tertiary than of traditional secondary institutions (para. 4.25).

8.25 Feasibility studies should be commissioned with a view to establishing, in one major city and in one smaller centre with a rural catchment area, a senior college (para. 4.25).

8.26 A set of studies should be undertaken forthwith, as a guide to policy, into the following aspects of upper school education:

(a) statistical analyses of student rolls, staffing, the nature and objectives of courses now being provided, student achievement;

(b) studies of current attempts to relate the teaching and climate of upper schools to the needs and problems of today's pupils;

(c) studies of the attitudes, values, and aspirations of these pupils, and their reactions to their present education;

(d) studies of the destination of recent leavers, related to their school courses;

(e) absorption studies tracing the careers of samples of former pupils over a 5- to 10-year period after leaving (para. 4.26).

8.27 Community colleges as described in the Hawke's Bay feasibility study should be established at Taradale and (with certain modifications, paras. 6.33–6.44) at other appropriate provincial centres (para. 4.27); they should not undertake university teaching, except in providing support and facilities for extramural students (para. 4.19).

8.28 Consideration should be given to commissioning feasibility studies with a view to one major technical institute and in due course one community college offering an increasing range of courses in pre-vocational general education (para. 4.27).

8.29 Within the secondary school itself there needs to be permanent vocational guidance counsellors backed by a corps of specialists (para. 5.7).

8.30 There should be continuing liaison between each secondary school and the tertiary institutions to which it contributes (para. 5.7).

8.31 The Advisory Council on Educational Planning should commission an investigation aimed at simplifying and improving the bursary system (para. 5.9).

8.32 The careers advisory service in the universities should be given continued support (para. 5.10).

8.33 The University Grants Committee system is both efficient and economic and should be continued (paras. 5.22–5.25).

8.34 Each technical institute should know early in the year what its grant is to be. The larger institutes might be permitted to opt for grants extending over a 2- or 3-year period; meanwhile, the practice of carrying forward unspent funds from one year to another should be extended (para. 5.47). Autonomy in financial decision-making should be progressively extended in the established institutes

by breaking down the strict itemising of grants; tendencies towards a further compartmentalising of grants should be resisted. Such institutes should be permitted greater freedom (within their budgets) to diverge from standard staffing establishments in the light of their own assessment of needs (para. 5.48).

8.35 At the discretion of the TCA individual technical institutes should be permitted to offer approved local courses and examinations as an alternative means of satisfying its certificate requirements (para. 5.54).

8.36 At the discretion of the TCB individual technical institutes should be permitted to offer approved local courses and examinations as an alternative means of satisfying its certificate requirements, especially to test out possible modifications of the present apprenticeship system (para. 5.55).

8.37 The technical directorate in the Department of Education should be strengthened (paras. 5.57–5.59).

8.38 Each institute should be visited every few years by a small team consisting of the relevant specialist from the directorate together with individuals in the same area of specialisation drawn from industry, from other institutes and possibly (in some cases) from a university, to comment on its courses in a given subject area (para. 5.60).

8.39 Training for technical institute staff should be strengthened, by providing (in teachers colleges) courses for newly-appointed tutors, by provision (through the department) courses in management training for senior staff, and by increasing the opportunities for further training and experience within industry (para. 5.61).

8.40 Each teachers college should know early in the year what its grant is to be. A move should be made, when its administration is strong enough, to grants extending over a 2 or 3-year period. Autonomy in financial decision-making should be progressively extended by breaking down the strict itemising of grants (para. 5.69).

8.41 There should be a review of the membership and the procedures of the local education board committees for selecting teachers college applicants, so that the processes of selection can be better co-ordinated with the admission procedures of the colleges (para. 5.70).

8.42 Each teachers college should be encouraged, where possible, to develop a range of programmes to meet the pre-service and in-service needs of different types of teachers (paras. 5.72–5.76).

8.43 The university, the technical institute, and the teachers college should preserve their separate identity but should welcome opportunities for fruitful co-operation, particularly at the local level. Joint committees at staff level should be established and cross-crediting encouraged (paras. 5.78–5.85).

8.44 Improved provision should be made for training those who are to teach adults. This will best be done by the teachers colleges. Initially the Christchurch Teachers College should be encouraged to undertake this responsibility (para. 6.12).

8.45 Any expansion in continuing education, of a less academic kind than that provided by university extension, should be promoted by the State through an appropriate system of course subsidies (paras. 6.38–6.39), should be planned within suitably-sized districts (paras. 6.41–6.42) by professional staff (para. 6.43) ultimately to be employed by such multi-purpose regional or united authorities as may emerge but in the meantime by ad hoc councils (paras. 6.41–6.42), and should be provided not only (as at present) in secondary school evening classes and by voluntary organisations but also by such institutions as community schools (paras. 6.17–6.25), community colleges (paras. 6.26–6.32), and senior colleges.

8.46 Liaison at the national level between university and non-university continuing education should be achieved through the National Council of Adult Education, possibly changed in name and composition (para. 6.46).

8.47 Continuing education for teachers should be strengthened mainly through increased in-service courses. but also by a limited extension of the selective study-leave scheme (para. 6.50).

8.48 The programme of in-service courses for teachers should be planned by the department in conjunction with the appropriate teachers organisations (para. 6.52) and the courses should be provided by the department, the universities, the technical institutes, and (increasingly) by the teachers colleges (para. 6.53).

8.49 The department's close control over specific sectors of the education system should be reduced, by transferring wherever possible the power of decision-making to local or district institutions; where the final decision must rest with the department, authority should be delegated to its regional offices to the maximum feasible extent (para. 7.6).

8.50 The primary and secondary directorates should be replaced by functional directorates dealing respectively with schools, development, and personnel, provided that there is the necessary

horizontal intermeshing between one section and another across directorate boundaries, and between professional and administrative units (para. 7.8).

8.51 Each professional director at head office should have attached to him an administrative officer, one of whose purposes should be to provide a direct link with the administrative sections of the the department (para. 7.13).

8.52 The department should undertake a vigorous programme of graduate recruitment (para. 7.16).

8.53 A further Assistant Director-General should be appointed (para. 7.19).

8.54 Creation of more regional offices should be considered if regions are to retain all or most of their present functions (para. 7.25).

8.55 Personal assessment of teachers should be the lesser part of an inspector's duties, and should be confined to two points in a teacher's career, namely, at the end of his probationary period, and when he first seeks a position of responsibility over other teachers (para. 7.32).

8.56 Continuing efforts should be made to give a sense of direction and a high morale to the inspectorate (paras. 7.34–7.35).

8.57 Every inspector on appointment should undergo a period of training (para. 7.38).

8.58 Salaries of inspectors should be substantially increased in order to attract and retain men and women with the right qualities (para. 7.38).

8.59 The Government should announce tentative figures for school building works for the following 2 years, the department to indicate how these sums might be allocated among the boards (para. 7.44).

8.60 In normal circumstances, once the Cabinet Works Committee has approved an education building project, the necessary approvals for subsequent stages should be given by the Minister of Education (para. 7.46).

8.61 Education boards should be authorised to accept tenders, without further reference to the department, for capital works that are on an approved programme and that are within accepted planning criteria, up to a cost level of $100,000 (para. 7.46).

8.62 The regional superintendent should be able to approve capital works, individually listed on approved programmes, to a value of $150,000 (para. 7.47).

8.63 Land for education purposes should whenever possible be purchased well in advance of need, and the Government should be prepared to exercise its powers of compulsory purchase in cases of urgency (paras. 7.49–7.50).

8.64 Officers of the Department of Education research and planning unit should have opportunities for overseas study (para. 7.61).

8.65 The Advisory Council on Educational Planning should be replaced by an Advisory Council on Educational Development, its members to be selected and appointed by the Minister of Education for a 3-year term, one-third retiring each year, and to be chosen for their potential contribution as individuals; its purposes should be to ensure a continuous oversight of education, and to direct public attention to any troublesome aspect of educational development by commissioning investigations and publishing reports (paras. 7.67–7.69).

Appendix A 16-18: THE CASE FOR THE SENIOR COLLEGE

[Our deliberations on the problems of forms 6 and 7 were initiated by a paper contributed by Mr Howard Hayden, one of our members, which is reproduced below. A few paragraphs, including the introduction and recommendations, already embodied in chapter 4, have here been omitted.]

The particular concern of this paper, reflected in much of the evidence submitted to the working party, lies with the present ability of the secondary school to adapt its traditional structure and organisation to meet in full the nature and needs of its senior students—those in forms 6 and 7.

The sixth former today, for a variety of reasons—life in a divided world, the social climate, higher standards of living, the impact of the mass media, a growing materialist sophistication accompanied by a looming sense of insecurity, and a questioning of social and moral values—has been maturing at a much more rapid rate than was the case with his parents. He is no longer a child, but a young adult—as is clearly indicated by the rapid spread of student unrest and revolt from the universities to the upper forms of secondary schools.

The legitimacy or otherwise of this revolt is not here questioned. It has happened and it is spreading, and its comparatively mild incidence in New Zealand is no guarantee of future immunity. In social comment and value judgments the sixth former ranks with the man of 21, not with the child of 13. He is impatient of the restraints of school life and its image of tutelage. It is necessary to provide a basis of dialogue and constructive understanding rather than the exacerbation of what seems to many senior pupils an inappropriate and restrictive environment. To fail to develop the full potential, humanistic and economic, of a vital sector of the nation's human resources by not being prepared to provide optimum conditions for their development would be a tragic waste of strength and spirit.

The educational grounds for reform are also compelling. Equality of opportunity for all senior pupils is impossible of attainment whilst the necessarily limited staffing situation in small rural schools and the areas of staff competence are the factors which determine what is taught and what is not. It is only in the large sixth forms of the urban schools that the capabilities, choice, and future needs

of the pupils can fully determine individual courses of study, though even here little opportunity is taken of the wide range of subjects available for University Entrance.

Furthermore the objectives of senior pupils are not and should not be limited to preparation for University Entrance and State bursaries. They include admission to non-university institutions for training as teachers, or for special diplomas, entry to commerce and industry, to articled employment in some professions and, in the case of girls, to nursing, higher-grade clerical and secretarial posts, and work in the social services. Some will seek further education for its own sake. Again such a wide spread of options cannot be successfully catered for in small sixth forms.

The importance of a wide diversity of objectives, courses, and levels of difficulty and instruction becomes more evident with the appreciation that vocational studies should be introduced at the latest possible stage of education. This principle has been widely substantiated by research, particularly in Sweden, whose educational ecology bears a close affinity to that of New Zealand. Studies at the post-School Certificate level need staff with a wide range of specialised competence and this, coupled with the approach to pupils called for by the psychological and social needs already outlined, requires from the secondary school of today a dichotomy of teaching method, curricula, staff requirements, staff/student relationships, and school organisation, all of which can seldom be reconciled within the same institution.

While it must be stressed that the sixth and seventh forms should not be regarded as providing simply a propaedeutic course for the university, prospective university students certainly form the largest identifiable section of that component of the educational structure which should smooth the transition between the disciplined and ordered life of the school—a world of children—and the individual freedoms of the adult world of the university. It has seemed to at least one of us that in many cases an intolerable burden has been laid upon young 16–17-year-old undergraduates, particularly girls from country schools, who are thrust into a strange world where their future is suddenly to be determined by their own sense of responsibility and their ability to chart their own course on a very strange sea. The orientation towards the teaching, learning way-of-life, and self-discovery of the university student can only be directed with difficulty in a school responding adequately to the myriad claims made upon it by hosts of young children who themselves might perhaps feel more at their ease free from the overbearing pressure of senior students with whom they have few affinities.

For the student who has elected to continue his education without the incentive of University Entrance, either of his own volition, to pursue a chosen career, a failure to find a satisfactory entry into work, or at the behest of his parents, there is pressing need for the climate and opportunities to provide him with a renewed incentive to study, a new purpose in a new and adult environment, and skills to enhance his market value at the close of his course.

Certainly principals and staffs of secondary schools have in many cases made, within their resources and the limitation of the structural pattern of their institutions, considerable efforts to meet the social and educational demands presented by their senior pupils, but a growing body of opinion both overseas, where the problems appear to be even more pressing, and here at home holds the view that the situation is developing to an extent where it can only be contained with difficulty within the existing institutional pattern.

This paper draws attention to one concept, that of a separate institution, the senior college, to cater for those secondary school pupils, the majority of whom are within the 16–18 age groups, who, having satisfied their school that they have completed such School Certificate studies as may be suitable, wish to continue with an institutional education.

It may be asked whether such an institution is not already planned in the new concept of the community college, one of the potential ingredients of which could appear to be pupils hitherto to be found in form 7. The inclusion of form 7 students, somewhat reluctantly considered as a second stage of development in the feasibility study of the proposed community college at Taradale, appears to lie open to a number of very considerable disadvantages. In particular it is difficult to accept the partition between two institutions, school and community college, of a stage of the educational process which begins, both in its psycho-sociological context and its urgent need for a different approach to teaching, at the post-School Certificate sixth form stage, of which the seventh form year is an extension.

A paper submitted to the working party by the Association of University Teachers, in a most dispassionate survey of the proposal to include form 7 in community colleges, has this to say:

> "In the *first* instance, senior secondary school students seem to be growing increasingly restive. They seem less able now to fit into the existing secondary school structure. To remain within the school disciplinary system is to be treated as if they were children, when, by leaving school they might become young men and women. *Secondly*, it could be argued that as a greater proportion of students stay longer at

secondary school, levels of study which were once the preserve of those who were academically inclined and university-bound are invaded by those who are neither. This is true of the sixth form which is no longer the preserve of potential graduates or teachers, and it can be expected to become increasingly true of form 7. *Thirdly*, some might argue that the seventh form offerings are, at the moment, simply a pallid version of Stage I instruction in various subjects and if proper study habits are to be inculcated these might be better acquired in a less formal environment. These first three possible arguments for community colleges are, however, open to serious question. In the first instance they point to problems within the secondary school system itself that do, without question, need to be tackled. They suggest to many observers a need for change and experiment within the secondary school system—and on a national basis. For they are all national problems which one cannot with good sense pretend to be tackling by setting up a number of provincial colleges. It is indeed likely that these problems are most pronounced in secondary schools in the larger cities which have not been considered as likely candidates for community colleges. The Association of University Teachers considers there could be a case for building special facilities for both sixth and seventh forms within secondary school campuses and for developing arrangements for handling senior school students in special ways within existing schools. It may even be that, in some cases, the answer could be the formulation of distinct sixth and seventh form colleges attached to secondary schools, rather than the 'creaming off' of senior students to form the core of a community college. Whether or not these suggestions are immediately practicable they do point again to the central claim of this submission—that a thorough investigation of the problems is a necessary pre-requisite to the development of any solution."

Certainly the problem is a national one to be treated on a national basis, but this does not preclude a flexible solution adaptable to local circumstances. In some urban areas the senior college might well be developed within existing secondary resources, either of buildings or of site, though this might well be "in association with" rather than "attached to" existing secondary schools. Nevertheless, there are very vital areas where the need to concentrate senior pupils from small secondary schools must give rise to the establishment of a new institution and all that such an opportunity offers in the way of innovation and development.

The basic characteristics of a senior college are set out below:

(a) The senior college is a new type of co-educational collegiate institution not organically related to a school or schools, though it will maintain a close liaison in respect of curricula and individual pupil records with the secondary schools in its catchment area. It will replace the sixth and seventh forms of these schools and offer free admission to all students who have completed, at their various levels, a School Certificate course.

(b) It will have its own governing body, including representatives of a student council and the staff, and should be administered as a unit of the tertiary level of the education system.

(c) In rural areas, colleges will need to make considerable provision for day, weekly, and full-term boarders.

(d) One or 2-year courses will be available not only for intending university students but for all school leavers who have completed the secondary course (and possibly those who have recently left school and who wish to return to full-time education) seeking further pre-vocational or general education on a full-time basis. The provision of full-time service courses not requiring elaborate equipment which would normally be organised by a technical institute, had one been available, offers an attractive avenue for further exploration.

(e) A major aim of the college, which is intended to serve as an equalisation factor establishing the extent and quality of pre-university and other general and pre-vocational courses the country, will be to offer a full range of subject options. Teaching, relying heavily on a tutorial system, will be by means of lectures, seminars, tutorials, and guided reading, together with the appropriate practical work, much of which may well be off-campus. Individual programmes will be drawn up and the college (though not staff and students) will be in operation for some 12 hours a day. The fullest possible use will be made of the new teaching media, but the nature of the college will call for a highly qualified and indeed devoted staff: a generous staff/student ratio must be anticipated. The nature of the teaching in the college may well attract specialists who have not been prepared to teach through the gamut of the present secondary school course. An essential feature of the staffing will be the provision of both vocational and guidance counselling services of a high order.

(f) Elements of importance in the college plant, whether by new design or adaptation will include a library, faculty libraries of basic texts for student use, ample carrel provision, and a large students' common room with coffee-bar and/or cafeteria facilities (student managed and staff audited). Laboratories will be planned for more advanced work than is possible in school design and will include a language laboratory. Staff accommodation will be based upon individual studies together with a small common room for social purposes. A little theatre would be preferred to a large assembly hall.

(g) The senior college, whilst retaining its own identity, might well be in a position to serve so far as its resources permit as an off-campus resource of a technical institute when the institute itself is remote. When, however, an institute or a community college is conveniently located the senior college might well form part of an educational complex affording an interchange of students for liberal and vocational courses.

(h) The question of siting in urban areas raises quite different problems. An early, and hopefully a temporary, solution may be found in the reallocation and adaptation of existing buildings since the transfer of senior pupils from a group of secondary schools will free a great deal of accommodation.

(i) The nature of the college, and its concentration of (but not on) pre-university students, should facilitate and encourage a close relationship with the universities it will serve—a relationship which the present scatter of intending students from rural areas scarcely permits.

(j) A development to be expected where other facilities do not exist is the association of the resources and activities of the college with appropriate community services such as a tutorial centre for continuing education and the cultural activities of the region.

Such a radical innovation in a system long stereotyped by tradition will not be universally acclaimed, yet without a wide measure of public and professional support a development of this nature, even in experimental form, can have no hope of being put into operation. A vast number of vested interests are involved: boards of governors controlling secondary schools, secondary school principals, secondary school staffs and their professional organisation the PPTA, old student's associations.

An axiom promulgated by the James Report on Teacher Education and Training in the United Kingdom holds that the interests of the children and students in schools and colleges take priority over those of institutions or even of the teaching profession itself.

Institutions are, by definition, resistant to change, none more so than systems of education. Education is heralded as a preparation for the future, but its organisation looks backwards to the past: it has a built-in opposition to change. The teacher in training at the universities is still examined on educational theory in the Greek city states, and even student radicals base their programmes on a simulation of nineteenth century Marxism. The insensitivity of education to modernisation and its innate conservatism are based upon many elements—the long association with religion whose

ultimate preoccupation with the future bears little relation to its obstinate distrust of innovation; the weighty anchor of tradition and the preservation of what is known as the cultural heritage; the fact that though the taught have to face the future, the teacher's capital of training and experience, only sparingly reinvested, has been accumulated long ago; the attitude of parents whose educational values are related to what is often an idealised and dimly-remembered past; the comparative immobility of the deeply seated machinery of many national systems of education; the jealous retention of power, limited and local though it may be, by ancillary units of these great machines; the tenuous thread of communication between educational research in the universities, the professional hierarchy of the administration and the problems encountered in the two-teacher village school. And perhaps we should add to all this the conservatism of the middle-aged and elderly clinging to the precarious stability of a familiar institution when the present is, to say the least, perplexing, and the future, to most, unforeseeable.

If it is accepted that the senior college would be able to respond to the needs and attitudes of senior pupils in a way no longer possible in the secondary school, most of the opposition that may be expected from parents will be based upon the same irrational fear of change, though soon they will surely be living in the hurricane's eye of change. This fear may find some degree of rational expression in doubts raised by the necessity of some students in rural areas having to board. But that doubt does not seem to have weighted with the parents in 1971 of some 2,358 pupils in State schools, and 1,485 in private schools, already in receipt of boarding allowances. Unfortunately, the fact that much of the opposition from parents may be irrational does little to diminish its effectiveness, and it will be necessary to present a powerful and convincing case to the public before any action, in however a limited area, is taken to implement the policy here propounded. The situation will certainly provide a useful opportunity for a major exercise in public relations.

Bodies with a strong vested interest in the status quo are boards of governors, societies of old boys and girls, and principals of secondary schools. The stout and successful resistance of governing bodies to change is an established fact in the history of New Zealand education, and old students' associations are possibly obsessed with renewing their youth. Nevertheless, both types of body can be and are of very great assistance to the schools to which many of their members are devoted, and their local influence is a factor of considerable significance. If they can be persuaded that their real interest lies not in the institution but in the young people for whom

it exists, their support would be a most valuable asset. And after all, though the sixth form may have departed, the school and the majority of its pupils remain.

The Post Primary Teachers' Association recently published a monograph of great significance, *Education in Change*—perhaps a cautiously worded title, but a happy omen for this thesis. The book is mainly concerned with change in the school curriculum, but it shows a keen appreciation of the social climate in which schools are now working. The transfer of senior pupils would clearly affect the secondary schools in a number of significant ways. The principal would lose his prefects, and his list of scholarship successes at prize-giving. The number of posts of special responsibility, and the allowances that go with them, might diminish. If sixth form work is the most rewarding aspect of secondary teaching, this, too, would be lost—to the school. Some teachers would argue that the continuity of teaching would be broken and that 1 or at the most 2 years in the college would be too short a time for pupils to settle down in the new institution and to become accustomed to new staff (though this is a process with which some schools are only too familiar already).

These are certainly some of the aspects of the project which would provoke immediate reaction in school common-rooms. It is true that senior pupils would be lost, but so would the increasing problems created by their attitudes and needs. There would, in fact, still be senior pupils—the median ages of pupils in their second year in the fifth form in State secondary schools in 1970, 3,211 boys and 2,653 girls, were almost identical, as might be expected, with the median ages of the sixth formers. An ample supply of prefects, or whatever they may now be called, remains. Sixth form teaching and posts of special responsibility will be lost to particular schools but not to the teaching staff transferred to the new colleges, thus leaving at least some vacant posts for those who remain.

Clearly the views of all sectors of the profession must be widely and carefully canvassed—the primary teachers because of their concern with the structure of their profession, secondary teachers because it is in their sector that the change is contemplated and, of course, because their experience with one-half of the problem and their prognosis of the future of the other half is likely to provide the clearest evidence both for and against the project. University and teachers college staffs are familiar with the present output of the sixth form and the problems they entail, and the technical institutes will surely wish to assess the contribution the colleges might make to some aspects of their work. The inspectorate can bring a stock of varied experience to bear which will provide a clear view both of the wood and the trees.

A consensus of opinion from so many sources seems too much to expect, and views would have to be weighed between rural and urban areas and different types of institution. But the time has surely come when a policy which has been lurking in many minds should at last be given a thorough airing. There is some evidence that the proposal will not be without considerable support among the teaching profession, and at least there can be no more propitious sign of willingness to consider change than the establishment of an Advisory Council on Educational Planning and the setting up of the elaborate machinery of the Educational Development Conference.

The detailed financial implications of the establishment of senior colleges lie beyond the competence of this paper: a separate study is called for if and when the proposals reach a more advanced state. It would seem at first glance that the major costs will be of capital rather than of recurrent expenditure. Plant must be built or adapted, though the grouping of sixth forms will result in the vacation of accommodation in many schools where space is already at a premium, where temporary buildings have, as always, outlasted their life, or where increased rolls may be expected. The cost of staff salaries will rise in total with the creation of principals' posts at the colleges: there may be savings, on the other hand, by the amalgamation of two single-sex secondary schools with both sixth forms transferred, and possibly by the more economic use of specialised staff in the larger units of the college. Other recurrent costs should not increase dramatically. In one of the first great planning reports, *Investment in Education*, a study of the future of higher education in Nigeria, Sir Eric Ashby wrote "You cannot afford not to afford it". This may not be good planning—but it could be sound policy.

157

Appendix B A MULTI-PURPOSE TEACHERS COLLEGE

[The sub-committee of this working party which investigated the Christchurch Teachers College concluded, as we indicated in para. 5.74, that it could suitably undertake a much wider range of activities (for example, training pre-school, tertiary, and continuing education staff as well as primary and secondary teachers, in both pre-entry and in-service courses), provided that it was appropriately organised to do so. The pattern of organisation recommended by the subcommittee is set out in the following extract (slightly abbreviated) from its report to the Minister of Education.]

Unified Professional Leadership

The first need is to provide a focus for academic policy formation. It is not to be expected that the college council, as a part-time and predominantly lay body, should generate academic policy, though it must, of course, retain the right to decide on the proposals laid before it. Just as a university council needs a vice-chancellor to explain and justify academic proposals, so the teachers college council needs, at this point in time, a chief professional adviser. Let it be clear, however, that we distinguish between leadership and dictation; his policy proposals cannot succeed if they are developed in isolation from the academic staff. We shall accordingly recommend, in the detail of our discussion, a Policy Committee to provide one element in the necessary process of consultation, though we also envisage that the members of that committee will in turn frequently be receiving suggestions and comments from many other members of the college staff. Policy formation is a collaborative enterprise; but at the centre of the process must be a leader with the responsibility for thinking of the future of the college as a whole, for directing the attention of his colleagues to the questions which have to be answered, for identifying the options which are available, and for stimulating the discussion from which policies can emerge.

The tasks of such a professional leader would not be confined to matters of long-term policy, though his responsibilities in that area are so important that we have tried to ensure that other duties should not encroach on them. He must in many respects be the ambassador and chief spokesman for the college, presenting its views for example to the Department of Education, the university, other teachers

colleges, and to many groups in the community. He must also be responsible to the college council for the efficiency of the college as a whole, hence for reviewing from time to time its internal organisation; in particular, he must ensure the effective intermeshing of the administrative and the academic staff, and for that reason the registrar would be responsible directly to him. The professional leader must also be ultimately responsible for discipline within the college, though as we shall make clear the day-to-day control in this area can appropriately be delegated. Last but not least, he must be responsible to the council for the effective deployment of resources, and especially for advising the council on the deployment of staff, buildings, and equipment among the college's various operating units so as to ensure a balance among its several functions.

Divisional or Departmental Organisation

At this point we must consider the nature of these operating units. Currently the college is organised basically on divisional lines (primary and secondary), with each division subdivided into departments (science, mathematics, social sciences, etc.). The NZEI proposed that the college should henceforth be organised on a departmental basis, not into divisions (thus there would be only one science department, one mathematics department, one social science department, etc., instead of two as at present). Many of the submissions made to us in Christchurch assumed the desirability, if not indeed the inevitability, of a continuation of a divisional framework. It seems to us, however, that reasonable flexibility in the deployment of staff, buildings, and equipment will be possible only if the departments extend across the whole college.

The weakness of the NZEI's proposed pattern of organisation is that it provides no in-built assurances that the specific needs of secondary trainees will be adequately considered, hence that it would be completely unacceptable to secondary teachers and to secondary division staff and students. We recognise that our proposals must build in reasonable assurances to prevent a hostile reaction of this kind; but this is not in our view a matter of making political concessions. A properly-designed organisation for a multi-purpose teachers college cannot be based solely on subject-matter departments, each offering only a part of each student's programme of courses. It must also ensure that someone is responsible for overseeing each programme of studies, is in close enough touch with the students in that programme to identify rapidly any deficiencies, and has both the status and the strategic location within the organisation to initiate corrective action where it is needed. Our proposals envisage initially two monitoring units of this kind, one for primary

and the other for secondary programmes; but we expect that in due course additional individuals or units will be appointed, to supervise, for example, pre-school programmes, special education programmes, programmes for tertiary and adult educators, and programmes for the continuing education of teachers.

Nomenclature

Before trying to draw up and further explain our proposals, it is necessary to give some thought to names. After careful consideration we have reached the conclusion that the most appropriate name for the professional leader of the institution is principal. The title is well understood, outside as well as within the teachers colleges, and it would cause no problems if in due course the Christchurch Teachers College were to develop a closer relationship with Canterbury University, as Lincoln College has done . . .

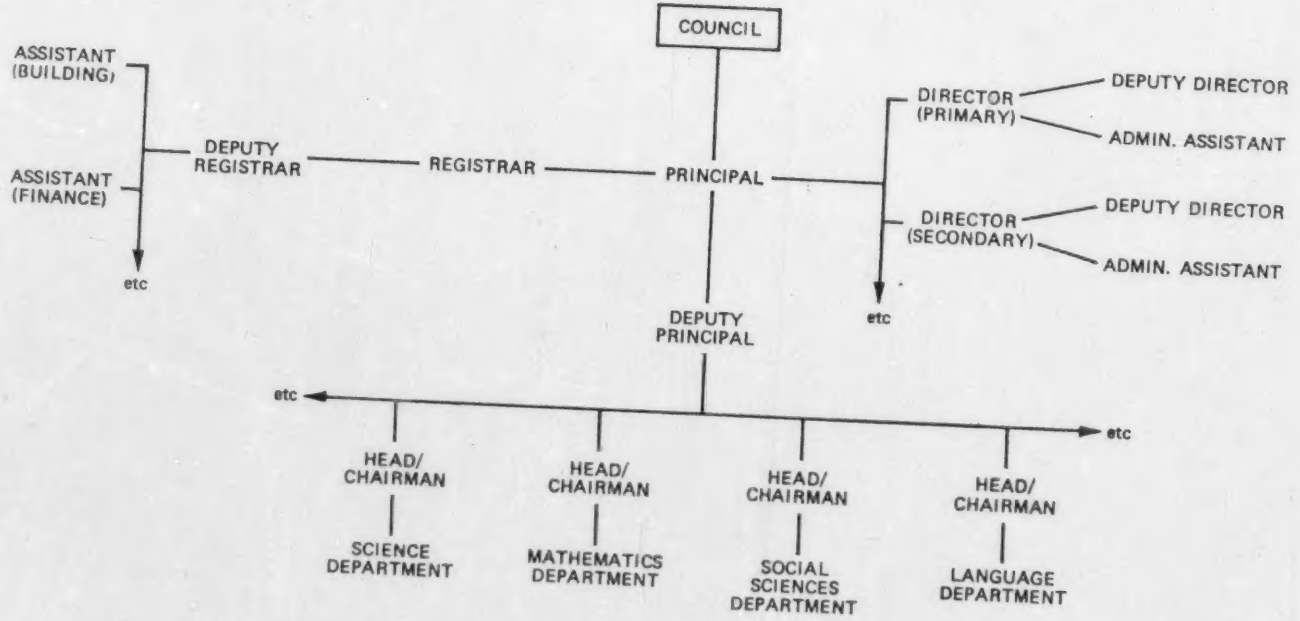
For the person responsible for overseeing each programme of studies, we propose the title director, for example, director of secondary programmes (or studies). The position would resemble in important respects that of a dean within a university, but in the teachers colleges the title dean is already used to refer to a different position, and even though we propose to eliminate that other position in Christchurch, its existence elsewhere would create complications for pay-fixing and confusions in usage. Moreover, by introducing a new title we would make it easier to introduce a range of salaries, such as would in our view be appropriate, since the administrative responsibilities of a director of primary or secondary programmes are likely to be appreciably heavier than those for example, of a director for special education programmes.

Diagram

Having explained our system of nomenclature, we can now draw up our proposed organisation in diagrammatic form, with the preliminary warning that the diagram is inevitably misleading if taken on its own, hence can be no more than an introduction to the explanations subsequently given in our text.

Explanation of the Diagram

1. *Departmental organisation*—For the reasons previously stated, we believe that subject-matter departments are the appropriate operating units for a "polytechnic"-type institution. We believe further that departments should be broadly grouped (for example,


COUNCIL
ASSISTANT (BUILDING)
ASSISTANT (FINANCE)
DEPUTY REGISTRAR
REGISTRAR
PRINCIPAL
DIRECTOR (PRIMARY)
DEPUTY DIRECTOR
ADMIN. ASSISTANT
DIRECTOR (SECONDARY)
DEPUTY DIRECTOR
ADMIN. ASSISTANT
etc
etc
DEPUTY PRINCIPAL
etc
etc
HEAD/ CHAIRMAN
HEAD/ CHAIRMAN
HEAD/ CHAIRMAN
HEAD/ CHAIRMAN
SCIENCE DEPARTMENT
MATHEMATICS DEPARTMENT
SOCIAL SCIENCES DEPARTMENT
LANGUAGE DEPARTMENT

one science department rather than separate departments for each of physics, chemistry, etc.), but we have not tried to specify precisely how many departments there should be, since this is properly a decision for the college itself. We have also left open the questions of whether there should be a single individual as continuous head of the department or a chairman selected from time to time, and to what extent he would in either case be assisted in his administration by an executive consisting of senior members of the department. We envisage, however, that departmental policy would be discussed in meetings of the whole department, and that academic proposals emerging from such discussions would be considered by a board of studies consisting of senior members of the department, together with the relevant directors, university representatives, student representatives, and appropriate officers of the Department of Education. As well as presenting policy proposals on behalf of the department, its head or chairman would be responsible for making the necessary returns to the college administration about its operations, submitting requests for any funds and equipment needed for its courses, and assigning staff so that its teaching commitments are fulfilled, both as a matter of regular organisation and to cope with any temporary absences.

2. *Directors of programmes*—Each director (assisted, in the case of the largest units—primary and secondary—by a deputy, and an administrative assistant provided by the registry) would be responsible for representing the college in the selection of his students, for overseeing the progress of each of them, for advising them about the selection of their courses within the college and (where appropriate) the university, for advising the council committee on resignations and terminations, and (under the ultimate control of the principal) for most day-to-day matters of discipline. The directors of primary and secondary programmes would also be responsible for arranging the postings of their respective students for in-school training. Through these continuing contacts with his students, each director would be in a good position to evaluate the adequacy of the programme as a whole and of the various courses within it, hence to propose changes and to comment on changes proposed by others. He, or (at his discretion) his deputy, would be a member of each of the major co-ordinating committees of the college, hence in a position to ensure that the needs of his students were properly considered before decisions (or recommendations to the council) were adopted; in particular, he would be a member of the main policy committee which, under the chairmanship of the principal, would formulate proposals for submission to the council on such matters as the budget, staff establishments, and accommodation, in the light of the relative needs of the different programmes. The

other co-ordinating committees through which he could exert an influence are described below. We would see no objections to, and some advantages in, the directors and deputy directors undertaking some teaching, limited though this must be by their other duties.

3. *Deputy Principal*—The responsibilities of the principal have been outlined above under the heading "Unified Professional Leadership." In discussing them, we indicated that care must be taken that his other duties do not encroach on his opportunities for formulating policy. Bearing in mind that the proposed directors will not be responsible, as are the existing principals of divisions, for general administration in such areas as buildings, maintenance, and equipment, but that all such matters (except postings to schools) will become the responsibility of the college's central administration, we strongly favour the creation of a post of deputy principal, to relieve the principal of many day-to-day decisions on matters raised, for example, by departmental heads. In support of this recommendation we must add the point that the principal will frequently be engaged in consultations outside the college, in Wellington and elsewhere, and that the administration of the college would be seriously defective if in those circumstances no day-to-day decisions could be taken.

4. *The Registry*—We have already stated that the registrar should be responsible to the principal, who must ensure the effective intermeshing of the administrative and the academic staff. The registrar should continue to be the secretary to the council. He, or (at his discretion) his deputy, should be entitled to attend all meetings of the major co-ordinating committees, though without a vote, so that he can advise them of the administrative implications of such proposals as they may consider. The need to advise and to service these committees, and to assist the principal and his deputy in their policy-forming and administrative roles, calls for some increase in the registry's senior staff. . . .

Co-ordinating Committees

We hope that the preceding discussion will have made it clear that the circumstances of the case, and not any Parkinsonian propensities on our part, demand a farily elaborate committee structure within the college, first to ensure a desirable participation by college staff in policy formation, and second to ensure that the directors of programmes can exert an effective influence on decision-making in the interests of their students. Apart from the subject boards of studies, and such committees as individual directors may see fit to convene, there will also need to be:

1. A policy committee, consisting of the principal (chairman), the vice-principal, the directors, and the registrar (non-voting), to formulate proposals for submission to the council on such matters as the budget, staff establishments, accommodation needs, and major policy developments.
2. An academic board, as at present a combined committee of council and senior staff, but including the directors, to consider new programmes and changes in programmes.
3. An appointments committee, as at present a combined committee of council and staff, the latter to include the principal or his deputy, the head or chairman of a department in which an appointment is to be made, and the directors whose programmes are likely to be affected by the appointment.
4. A timetabling committee, consisting (we suggest) of the deputy principal and the directors or their deputies.
5. A library committee, as at present.
6. A committee on current departmental operations, a new committee to consist (we suggest) of the deputy principal and the directors or their deputies, which may be needed to consider not changes in programme content (which are the responsibility of the Academic Board) but current programme implementation, for example, the number of tutor-hours and class-room hours for which departments must provide, in the light of enrolments. As previously indicated, the allocation of these duties among its staff would be a department's responsibility. Such a committee might also ration scarce facilities among competing users, in the light of their repsective needs.

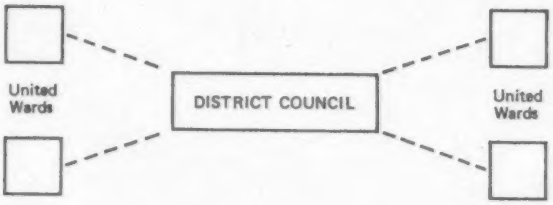
We trust that the explanatory material in this and the previous section has been sufficiently detailed to show that the organisation sketched in the preceding diagram is viable, to indicate how it might work, and to demonstrate that the interests of the students pursuing different programmes in a multi-purpose college could be effectively represented in its policy-forming and priority-determining processes, even though it was organised on a departmental and not a divisional basis.

Appendix C THE PROPOSED DISTRICT, IN DIAGRAMS

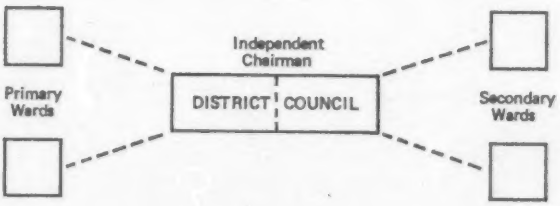
THE POSSIBLE STRUCTURE OF A DISTRICT ADMINISTRATION

FOUR POSSIBLE STRUCTURES OF A DISTRICT AUTHORITY

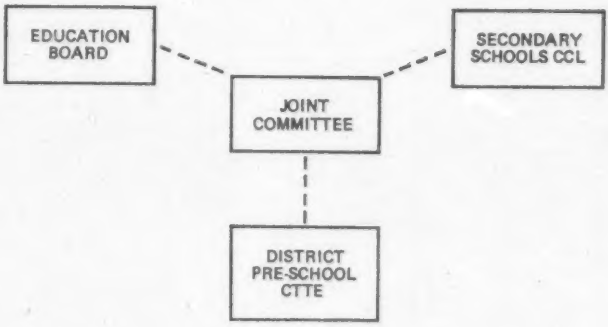
PATTERN 1:



PATTERN 2:



PATTERN 3:

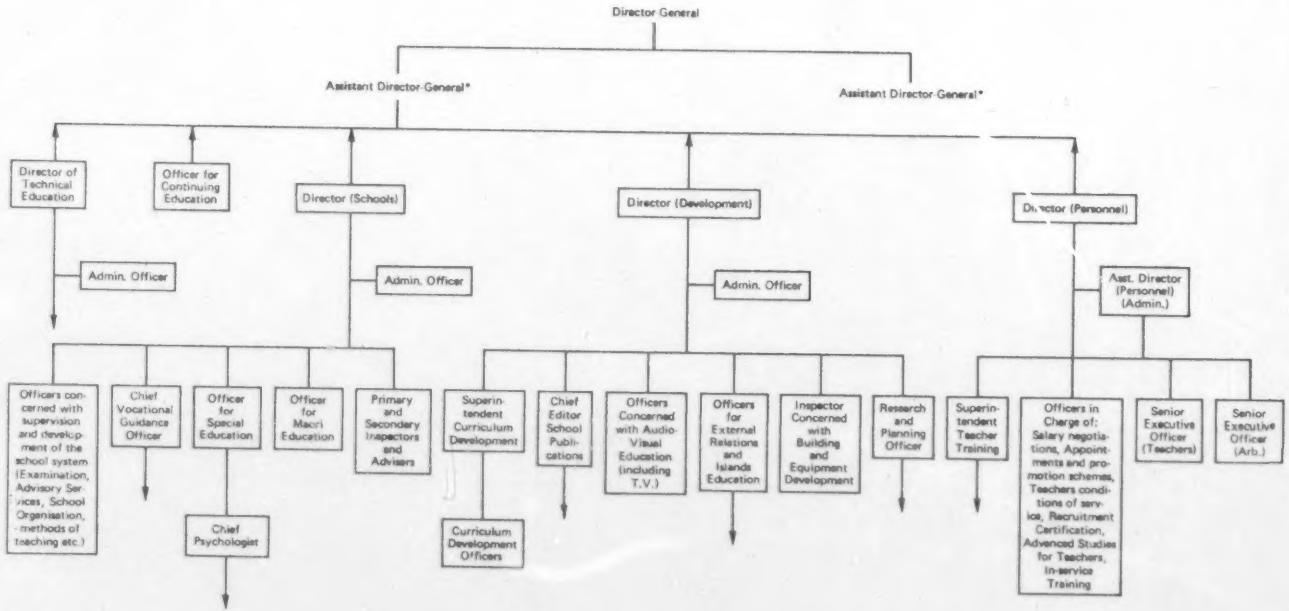


PATTERN 4:

Appendix D THE HEAD OFFICE REORGANISATION PROPOSED BY THE DEPARTMENT, IN CHARTS.

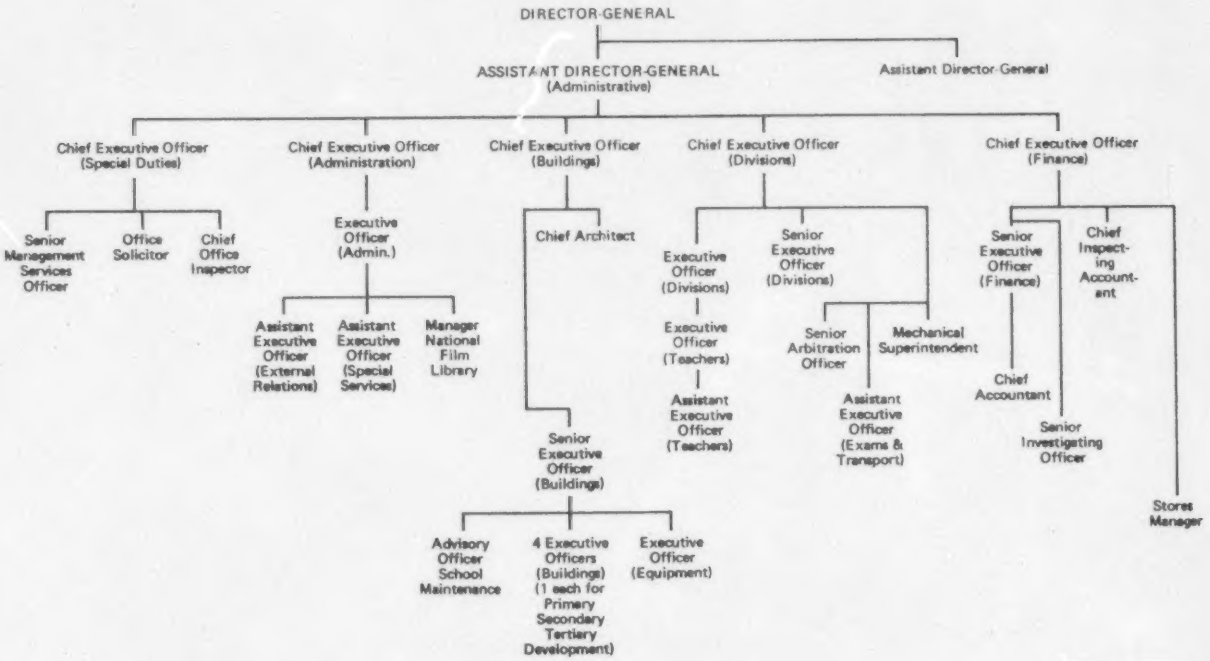
ORGANISATION CHART OF PROFESSIONAL OFFICERS IN HEAD OFFICE (1973)

PROFESSIONAL DIRECTORATES (TENTATIVE REORGANISATION 1973)

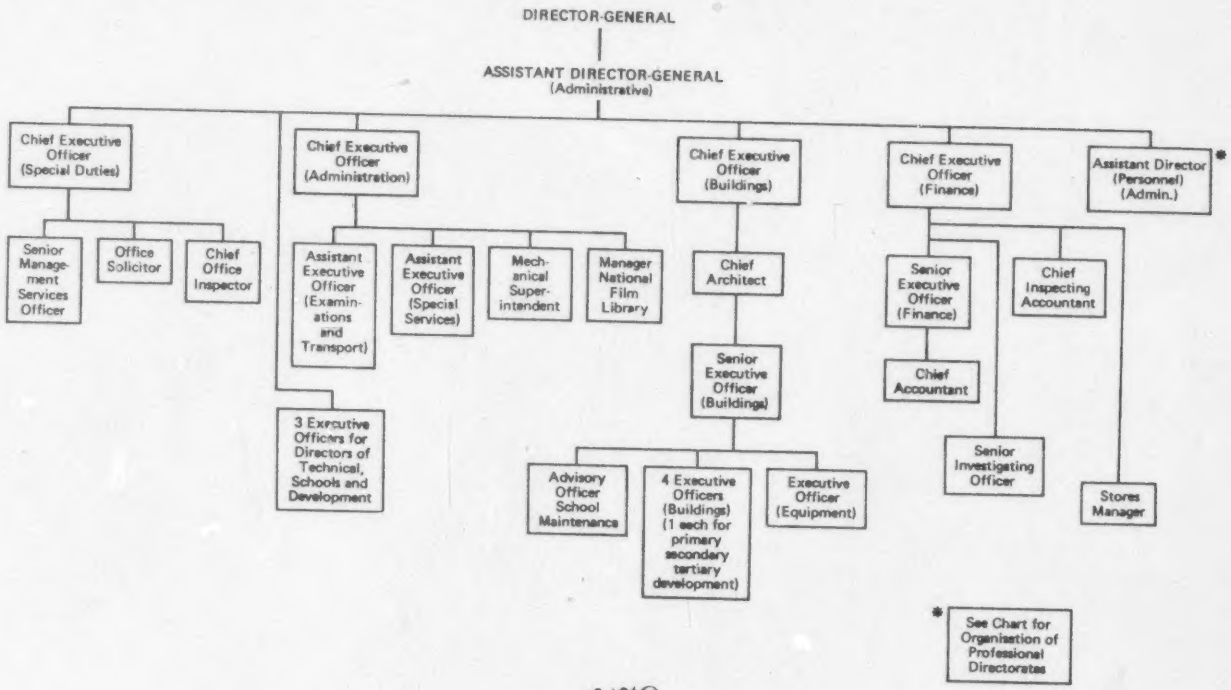

Director General
Assistant Director-General*
Assistant Director-General*
Director of Technical Education
Officer for Continuing Education
Director (Schools)
Director (Development)
Director (Personnel)
Admin. Officer
Admin. Officer
Admin. Officer
Asst. Director (Personnel) (Admin.)
Officers concerned with supervision and development of the school system (Examination, Advisory Services, School Organisation, methods of teaching etc.)
Chief Vocational Guidance Officer
Officer for Special Education
Officer for Maori Education
Primary and Secondary Inspectors and Advisers
Superintendent Curriculum Development
Chief Editor School Publications
Officers Concerned with Audio-Visual Education (including T.V.)
Officers for External Relations and Islands Education
Inspector Concerned with Building and Equipment Development
Research and Planning Officer
Superintendent Teacher Training
Officers in Charge of: Salary negotiations, Appointments and promotion schemes, Teachers conditions of service, Recruitment Certification, Advanced Studies for Teachers, In-service Training
Senior Executive Officer (Teachers)
Senior Executive Officer (Arb.)
Chief Psychologist
Curriculum Development Officers

*Responsibilities of the Two Assistant Director General's for Particular Directorates not yet allocated.

ORGANISATION CHART OF ADMINISTRATIVE OFFICERS IN HEAD OFFICE (1973)



ADMINISTRATIVE DIVISION (TENTATIVE REORGANISATION 1973)


DIRECTOR-GENERAL
ASSISTANT DIRECTOR-GENERAL (Administrative)
Chief Executive Officer (Special Duties)
Senior Management Services Officer
Office Solicitor
Chief Office Inspector
Chief Executive Officer (Administration)
Assistant Executive Officer (Examinations and Transport)
Assistant Executive Officer (Special Services)
Mechanical Superintendent
Manager National Film Library
3 Executive Officers for Directors of Technical, Schools and Development
Chief Executive Officer (Buildings)
Chief Architect
Senior Executive Officer (Buildings)
Advisory Officer School Maintenance
4 Executive Officers (Buildings) (1 each for primary secondary tertiary development)
Executive Officer (Equipment)
Chief Executive Officer (Finance)
Senior Executive Officer (Finance)
Chief Accountant
Chief Inspecting Accountant
Senior Investigating Officer
Assistant Director (Personnel) (Admin.) *
Stores Manager
* See Chart for Organisation of Professional Directorates

Appendix E NOTE ON STATISTICS

Although growth has been a major factor in many of the issues discussed in this report, our findings have not depended on statistical data. Consequently, the flow of argument has not been broken by the insertion of such material.

A large volume of statistical data relating to various aspects of the activities of the Department of Education was made available to the working party. The main public documents, which may be referred to by readers of this report wishing to view its contents against a quantitative background, are:

1. *The Report of the Department of Education for the Period Ended 31 March 1973 (E. 1)*—Here will be found summary details of enrolment by type of institution and by level of class, the numbers and type of institutions, the numbers of Maori pupils, of teaching staff, students in teacher training, examination passes, and a minimal finance statement. Most tables show growth from 1945.

An appendix gives the numbers and types of controlling authorities and bears particular relevance to chapter 3 of our report.

2. *Education Statistics of New Zealand, Parts I and II*—These two volumes published annually seek "to present a comprehensive statistical picture of the New Zealand educational system". Volume II contains a useful survey of teacher movement. Financial information is again limited to a one page summary. The data made available relate almost entirely to teaching institutions. Nothing is reported, for instance, about the nature and strength of the departmental establishment.

3. *Education Costs and Performance—1945–70*—A reprint of a special review of education costs and performance for the quarter-century 1945–70 from the departmental annual report for 1970, with visual aids in the form of a number of garishly coloured charts useful for teaching situations.

4. *Estimates of Expenditure of the Government of New Zealand for the Year Ending 31 March 1974 (B. 7 (Pt.I)): Vote Education*—This annual publication sets out (on pp. 56–66) details of the sum approved to defray the expenses of Vote Education in the year ending 31 March 1974, under the following headings: vote summary; staff strengths and salaries; activity programme; expenditure items; and notes on the estimates.

Any statistics used in the text of our report have been obtained from the above sources, or from the Department of Education Research and Planning Unit, the National Council of Adult Education or the *Workers' Educational Association Review*, April 1973.

Appendix F WITNESSES HEARD

The working party heard oral evidence from the following individuals and from spokesmen for the organisations listed.

Dr N. Begg, Medical Adviser to the Plunket Society.
D. W. Bewley, Director of Extra-mural Studies, Massey University.
P. W. Boag, Director of Secondary Education, Department of Education.
E. A. Clarkson, Principal, Southland Girls' High School.
J. M. Cornwell, Rector, Southland Boys' High School.
B. N. Dawe, Principal, James Hargest High School.
A. N. V. Dobbs, Director-General of Education.
P. L. Edwards, Principal, Canberra Technical Institute.
J. D. A. Hercus, Deputy Principal, Christchurch Technical Institute.
A. E. Hinton, Assistant Director-General of Education (Administrative).
F. M. Ives, Principal, Southland Polytechnic.
D. G. James, Secretary, National Council of Adult Education.
J. Lelliott, General Manager, Southland Education Board.
D. Nelson, Director of Technical Education, Department of Education.
G. S. Orr, Deputy Chairman, State Services Commission.
W. L. Renwick, Assistant Director-General of Education.
J. A. Ross, Superintendent of Curriculum Development, Department of Education.
O. Taylor, Principal, Southland College.
P. M. Tillott, Director, Centre for Continuing Education, University of Auckland.
J. E. Watson, Director, New Zealand Council for Educational Research.
J. Wight, Acting Director of Development and Planning, Ministry of Works.
Association of Teachers in Technical Institutes.
Association of University Teachers.
Auckland Department of Education regional officers (Regional Superintendent, District Senior Inspector (Primary), District Senior Inspector (Secondary), Regional Executive Officer.)
Auckland Education Board.
Canterbury Education Board.
Christchurch Department of Education regional officers. (Regional Superintendent, District Senior Inspector (Secondary), Regional Executive Officer.)

173

Christchurch secondary principals.
Christchurch Secondary Schools Council.
Christchurch Teachers College Council.
Dunedin Teachers College.
Gore High School Board of Governors.
Invercargill City Council.
James Hargest High School Parent-Teacher Association.
King Edward High School Board of Governors.
New Zealand Education Boards Association.
New Zealand Educational Institute.
New Zealand Free Kindergarten Teachers' Association.
New Zealand Free Kindergarten Union.
New Zealand Parent-Teacher Association.
New Zealand Playcentre Federation.
New Zealand Post-Primary Teachers' Association.
New Zealand Post-Primary Teachers' Association, Southland Region.
New Zealand School Committees Federation.
New Zealand Secondary School Boards' Association.
New Zealand Teachers Colleges Association.
Otago Education Board.
Otago High Schools Board.
Rodney College Board of Governors.
Southland College Board of Governors.
Southland Education Board.
Southland Girls' High School Parent-Teacher Association.
Southland High Schools Board.
Southland Playcentre Association.
Southland Values Party.
Southland Workers' Educational Association.
Technical Institutes Association of New Zealand.
University Grants Committee.
University of Canterbury.
University of Otago.

174

Appendix G WRITTEN SUBMISSIONS RECEIVED

Written submissions were received from the following individuals and organisations. This list excludes those submissions referred to the working party by the Advisory Council on Educational Planning and the Educational Priorities Conference.

L. M. Cornwell, Rector, Southland Boys' High School.
B. N. Dawe, Principal, James Hargest High School.
*R. W. Fox, Wellington.
Robert M. Gordon, Wellington.
J. D. A. Hercus, Deputy Principal, Christchurch Technical Institute.
Nedra J. Johnson, Christchurch.
F. M. Ives, Principal, Southland Polytechnic.
B. Munday, Christchurch.
J. Lelliott, General Manager, Southland Education Board.
O. Taylor, Principal, Southland College.
Ashburton College Board of Governors.
Avondale College Board of Governors.
Association of Teachers in Technical Institutes.
Auckland Education Board.
Auckland Federation of Parent-Teacher Associations.
Auckland Intermediate Schools Association.
Bay of Islands College Board of Governors.
Christchurch Teachers College Council.
Christchurch Teachers College Council administrative staff.
*Council of the Auckland Technical Institutes.
Dunedin Teachers College Council.
Fairfield College Board of Governors.
*Federated Farmers of New Zealand (Auckland Province).
Gore High School Board of Governors.
Greymouth High School Board of Governors.
Heretaunga College Board of Governors.
Invercargill City Council.
James Hargest High School Parent-Teacher Association.
Kawerau College Board of Governors.
Naenae College Board of Governors.
National Development Council.
New Plymouth High School Board of Governors.
New Zealand Education Boards Association.
New Zealand Education Officers' Association.
New Zealand Educational Institute.

New Zealand Employers' Federation.
New Zealand Free Kindergarten Teachers' Association.
New Zealand Free Kindergarten Union.
New Zealand Parent-Teacher Association.
New Zealand Playcentre Federation.
New Zealand Post Primary Teachers' Association.
New Zealand Post Primary Teachers' Association, Southland Region.
New Zealand Psychological Service Association.
New Zealand School Committee Federation.
New Zealand Secondary School Boards' Association.
New Zealand Speech Therapists' Association.
New Zealand Teachers Colleges Association.
New Zealand University Students' Association and Student Teachers' Association of New Zealand (joint submission).
Newlands College Board of Governors.
*Northland Secondary Schools Principals' Association.
Pukekohe High School Board of Governors.
Rongotai College Board of Governors.
Southland Boys' High School Parent-Teacher Association.
Southland College Board of Governors.
Southland Education Board.
Southland Girls' High School Parent-Teacher Association.
Southland Playcentre Association.
Southland Values Party.
Southland Workers' Educational Association.
Taihape College Board of Governors.
Teachers College Registrars (per P. D. Young, Registrar, Wellington Teachers College).
Technical Institutes Association of New Zealand.
Waihi College Board of Governors.
Wellington Education Board.
Wellington High School Board of Governors.
Wellington Teachers College Council.

*Submissions made to the Minister of Education and referred by him to the working party.

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